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## Prevalence of Client Violence against Social Work Students and Its Effects on Fear of Future Violence, Occupational Commitment, and Career Withdrawal Intentions

Pamela Myatt Criss  
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Prevalence of Client Violence against Social Work Students and Its Effects on  
Fear of Future Violence, Occupational Commitment, and Career Withdrawal Intentions

by

Pamela Myatt Criss

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy  
School of Social Work  
College of Behavioral and Community Sciences  
University of South Florida

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Keywords: social worker, workplace violence, career turnover intentions,  
career commitment, safety training

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## Dedication

This work is first dedicated to my husband, Steve Criss. You are my partner and best friend. You have been patient beyond words, often tiptoeing quietly past my workspace, when I knew that you would love to stop and have a conversation. I admire your passion for safety and justice. I look forward to the future with you. I really am done now!

This is further dedicated in honor of my mother, Yvonne Myatt, and in memory of my dad, William (Bill) Myatt. You planted in me a desire to serve people and the ability to see the best in people. I am privileged to be your daughter. Thanks for believing in me.

To my precious daughters, Jill, Jaclyn, and Jennifer: You have grown into such beautiful, strong women. Thanks for your support and love. You patiently sacrificed time with me during my masters program and now again during another degree program. To you, too, I say, I really am done now. I look forward to more time with you! Also, to my stepson, Scott, thanks for your legal expertise, your love, and respect. I am proud of you!

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To all social work students from Southeastern University in 2001-2009: You continue to inspire me. Thanks particularly to Tracy Miller, who unknowingly inspired this project.

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# Prevalence of Client Violence Against Social Work Students and Its Effects on Fear of Future Violence, Occupational Commitment, and Career Withdrawal Intentions

Pamela Myatt Criss

## ABSTRACT

Social work literature has documented that social workers may be the victims of client violence. However, to date, no studies have documented the nationwide prevalence of client violence towards social work students. This study examined direct and indirect incidents of physical assault, threats of physical harm, verbal abuse, threats of lawsuit, and property damage. The randomly selected national sample of social work students were selected from the National Association of Social Workers ( $N = 595$ ).

Findings revealed that 41.7% of social work students directly experienced client violence during their practicum. The highest rate of the violence reported by students was verbal abuse (37.5%) while the lowest rate of reported violence was physical assault (3.5%). Being male was the most significant predictor of social work students' exposure to client violence. Other factors related to increased violence were found, such as ethnicity and degree program. This study also examined whether students received safety training in 17 content areas and where they received the training. Fewer than 50% of students received training in most training content areas, regardless of where training was received. Furthermore, increased safety training in the field agency was significantly related to increased threats of physical harm and overall client violence. When training

from all venues was totaled, increased training was significantly related to increased verbal abuse, property damage, and overall direct client violence.

This study found that when students experience client violence directly or indirectly, they have increased fear of future violence in social work practice. Implications for social work programs, field agencies and educators and social work students are discussed. Training content and strategies are suggested.

## Chapter I

### Introduction

Consider the 2006 news story from Henderson, Kentucky:

A nine month old boy, his mother and her boyfriend were still missing Wednesday, two days after a social worker was found dead in the mother's home. Boni Frederick, 67, had taken the boy, who has been in foster care, to his mother's house for a visit on Monday. Police found her body after she failed to return to work, and she appeared to have been beaten to death... 'It was blunt- force trauma and sharp- instrument laceration,' Sgt. John Nevels of the Henderson Police Department said Tuesday. 'There was definitely a struggle.'...Advocates said the slaying emphasizes the danger of social work (Lenz, 2006).

During their career, social workers have a high risk of encountering client violence in the agencies where they serve. More than two dozen studies over the past twenty years have documented the occurrence of violence to social workers while they are in their workplaces. A recent national study of 5000 social workers was conducted by NASW Center for Workforce Studies (NASW, 2006b). It found that 47% of social workers had concerns about personal safety and nearly 30% reported that their employers do not adequately address safety concerns. National prevalence rates for social workers' exposure to violence indicate that between 65%-86% of social workers have encountered client violence at some time during their career (Beaver, 1999; Ringstad, 1995).

When social workers are the victims of client violence, they can experience the acute effects of trauma that include becoming timid, withdrawn, frightened, nervous, and

angry (Guy & Brady, 1998; Horwitz, 2006; Norris, 1990; Snow, 1994). With increased fear of future occurrences of violence and less confidence in their abilities to serve clients, social workers may be reluctant to risk putting themselves in a similar situation. They may be prone to abandon their commitment to the profession of social work and may have intentions of leaving the profession.

Like veteran social workers, social work students may also be at risk of experiencing client aggression. When these emerging members of the profession experience client violence, they may be immobilized by the fear that this could occur again. They may question their choice of career and make a decision to change their career before they ever become independent social work practitioners.

Unfortunately, much is still unknown about the prevalence of client violence toward social work students. In the 7 studies that have surveyed social work students, sample sizes have been small and regionalized. In these studies, prevalence rates for students encountering violence in their practicum have ranged from 21% - 54% (Knight, 1999; Mama, 2001). Studies indicate that prevalence statistics for social workers' exposure to client violence may be underestimated due to the fact that many incidents go unreported (Norris, 1990; MacDonald & Sirotich, 2001). Thus the actual incidents of client violence toward social work students are likely to be more than the statistics reveal. Even if the lower prevalence rate were more accurate, one in five social work students may be at risk of harm from client violence.



### *Statement of Problem*

Social work students may be harmed by client violence during their practicum experience. Because few studies have explored incidence of client violence toward social work students, it is unclear how often it occurs. If students are harmed, there may be far reaching personal, professional, and organizational effects. As with any other victims of violence, when students are hurt or purposefully frightened by clients, they may have acute reactions to this trauma. Fear of future violence in the field of social work may weaken their commitment to the profession. They may then make plans to leave the profession before they begin. Their potential as a social worker may never be reached.

Organizationally, field agencies and social work schools may suffer financially if they are liable for injuries when they have not adequately prepared the student for encountering the risk of violence. Agency's employees may be affected negatively through their awareness of the potential that they too could be harmed. Finally, and perhaps most important to the mission of social work, clients may be affected as potential members of the profession are lost.

Violence statistics may minimize the impact that client violence has on students' lives. Even those who work most closely with social work students may be lulled into forgetting that violence may irretrievably wound people. It is the responsibility of social work educators and practitioners to learn as much as possible about this phenomenon in order to help to prevent occurrences of violence to students.

### *Purpose*

This study is a national probability study that questions social work students' experience with client violence. It examines the prevalence of client violence as it relates to personal factors such as gender, age, previous experience, ethnicity, and social work degree program. Additionally, it explores organizational factors such as place and time of the violent incident, training on safety and violence, social work practice setting, and ethnic mix of the field supervision dyad to see how these influence exposure to client violence. From these factors, analyses will be conducted to determine which factors best predict the occurrence of client violence. Finally, this study is the first to reach beyond prevalence and incidence studies of client violence toward social work students, as it considers possible effects of client violence on the lives of social work students. This study explores relationships between social work students' exposure to violence, fear of future violence and the potential decrease in career commitment and increase in career withdrawal intentions.

### *Definition of Terms*

#### *Client Violence*

Intentional personal or agency property damage, threats, verbal abuse, threat of lawsuit, attempted physical harm, or actual physical harm against social workers or other service providers by individuals who are applicants, recipients, or former recipients of those services (Newhill, 2003).

### *Indirect Experience of Client Violence*

Violent or aggressive client violence event that a social worker has heard about and/or witnessed during one's social work practicum.

### *Physical Assault*

An incident in which an individual actually lays hands or a weapon on another individual with the intent to harm (Newhill, 2003).

### *Threat of Physical Harm*

Verbal or written threat to harm another individual or deliberate threatening physical gesture (including stalking) from one individual to another (Newhill, 2003).

### *Property Damage*

An incident in which an individual intentionally damages another individual's personal property or property the individual was seen using at the time of the incident (Newhill, 2003).

### *Occupational Commitment*

A person's belief in and acceptance of values of his or her chosen occupation or line of work and willingness to maintain membership in that occupation (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994).

### *Career Withdrawal Intentions*

The extent to which an individual has thought about leaving his/her profession (Blau, 1985).

### *Hypotheses*

Based on the literature review of social work students and their experience with client violence, five personal demographic variables and five organizational demographic variables are incorporated in this study in order to gain understanding about the prevalence of violence towards social work students. The following hypotheses regarding personal demographics are examined:

Hypothesis 1-1 Male social work students will experience more of every type of client violence than female social work students.

Hypothesis 1-2 Younger social work students will experience more of every type of client violence than older social work students.

Hypothesis 1-3 Less experienced social work students will experience more of every type of client violence than more experienced social work students.

Hypothesis 1-4 There will be no difference in exposure to client violence by students of differing ethnicities/ racial backgrounds.

Hypothesis 1-5 BSW students will experience more of every type of client violence than MSW students.

The relationship between the following organizational factors related to the practicum setting and prevalence of client violence are explored through these hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1-6 There will be a significant difference in numbers of client violence incidents occurring to social work students according to the place of social work practice (home visit, office, other).

Hypothesis 1-7 There will be a significant difference in numbers of client violence incidents occurring to social work students according to the time of day.

Hypothesis 1-8 There will be a significant difference in numbers of client violence incidents occurring to social work students according to their practice setting.

Hypothesis 1-9 There will be a significant difference in numbers of client violence incidents occurring to social work students according to the race/ethnicity match of the students and their field educators.

Hypothesis 1-10 Social work students who have had training in more content areas regarding safety and violence will have fewer incidents of client violence.

The effects of client violence on social work students are explored by examining the relationship between incidents of client violence, fear of future violence, occupational commitment, and career withdrawal intention. Fear of future violence is proposed as a mediator between experience of client violence and the outcome variables, such that:

Hypothesis 2-1 Experience of client violence has a positive and direct effect on fear of future client violence.

Hypothesis 2-2 Fear of future client violence has a negative and direct effect on career commitment.

Hypothesis 2-3 Fear of future client violence has a negative and direct effect on career turnover intention.

### *Delimitations*

The following are delimitations of this research study:

1. The sample for this study was drawn from the national student membership in the National Association of Social Workers. Requirement for student membership in this organization is that students must be enrolled in social work programs that are in candidacy for accreditation by the Council of Social Work Education (CSWE) or are fully accredited by CSWE.
2. The study included students who were currently participating in a field placement or current students who had completed their field placement in their social work program.

### *Significance and Contribution of the Study*

To date, there have been few studies of client violence toward social work students. The studies that exist are predominantly non probability studies within specific social work programs, although one study included students from eight different programs (Knight, 1996). This study was the first national probability study of social work students on the subject of client violence. As such, it was anticipated that the findings of the study would have greater generalizability to the entire population of social work students in the U.S. It was also a matter of interest that in manually reviewing approximately six most recent years of issues of two journals on social work education, this researcher could only find seven national random samples of social work students on any subject. Most empirical studies drew their samples from one or two schools of social work. in order to

better understand the experiences of social work students at large, larger probability studies should prove helpful.

Secondly, no previous social work studies have sought to examine the association between client violence, career commitment, and career withdrawal intentions of social workers or social work students. In fact, few studies have looked at the professional socialization of social work students, what types of variables cause them to be committed to the profession of social work, and at what point this commitment initially takes place (Baretti, 2004).

Finally, only one study has attempted to look at specific violence training that social work students have received and the possibility that training may reduce incidents of client violence (Elwood & Rey, 1996). It is hoped that the findings of this research will help schools of social work and field practicum sites to develop training programs that will help to protect social work students from becoming victims of violence, decrease their fear of future violence and sustain their interest in the profession of social work.

## Chapter II

### Review of the Literature

This chapter contains a review of relevant literature pertaining to the key concepts of this study. It begins with a general introduction to client violence towards social workers and theoretical underpinnings of the study. There follows a discussion of prevalence of client violence towards social workers globally and in the United States. Methodologies of the U.S. studies are summarized. The literature then focuses on client violence towards social work students. The next section of the review focuses on literature concerning the personal and organizational factors that are the focus of the hypotheses in the study. Finally, literature concerning the effects of client violence is discussed, with specific focus on fear of future violence, occupational commitment, and career withdrawal intentions.

#### *Social Workers' Risk of Client Violence*

Social workers are at increased risk of becoming victims of workplace violence. Bureau of Labor (BLS) data from 2000 showed that 48% of all non-fatal injuries from occupational assaults and violent acts occurred in health care and social services (OSHA, 2004). BLS further reports that health care and social services are at high risk for violent assault at work. The workplace injury rate for social service workers is seven and a half times higher than the workplace injury rate for the overall private sector.



In the Department of Justice's National Crime Victimization Survey, the average annual rate of non fatal violent crimes for mental health professionals was 68.2 per 1,000, compared with 12.6 per 1,000, the average rate for all occupations (OSHA, 2004). This increased risk for mental health professionals is noted to result from systemic issues, such as: increased use of hospitals for the care of acutely disturbed individuals; increasing numbers of chronically mentally ill people being released from hospitals without follow up care; long waits at agencies; and low staffing levels. Low staffing levels may lead to situations of doing isolated work during treatment, and solo work in remote locations, with no back up or way to get assistance. Additionally, societal problems such as the prevalence of handguns, increasing members of gangs, and increasing presence of drug and alcohol use may contribute to increased client violence. The Department of Justice survey also notes that there is a lack of training in recognizing and managing escalating and assaultive behavior.

Some social work researchers have stated that risk of violence by clients is not inevitable, indicating that we need to be careful about accepting client violence as a reality for social workers (Ringstad, 2005). However, other scholars have emphasized that without acknowledging that client violence toward social workers is a reality, we will not have the capacity to both prevent it and respond effectively when it has occurred (Guy & Brady, 1998; Newhill, 2003). Brockmann (2002) stated that because social workers work with the most vulnerable populations, it may be more realistic to reduce, rather than eliminate violence. Social workers, particularly those newest to the field,

should be prepared to avoid violent encounters, yet be confident in seeking support if it is necessary to reduce the effects of client violence.

### *Theoretical Framework*

#### *Person in Environment Perspective*

Breakwell and Rowett (1989) noted that there had been an absence of theory building perspective on the subject of client violence toward social workers. They then conducted their study using Steadman's situational approach to the study of violent incidents. The premise of this theory is that "violence is influenced by a number of variables stemming from the interaction between the aggressor and the victim in certain situational context." (p. 242-243). The situational context of violence is critical in determining the beginning of the violence, the course of the violence and consequences.

Some studies have outlined the need to understand both preventive and reactive strategies in order to effectively reduce the risk of violence in the workplace. In his article on an ecological view of psychological trauma, Harvey (1996) discussed the use of a Person X Event X Environment Influences model. He stated that individual vulnerability to victimization and individual recovery patterns are determined by interactions between person factors, such as age and gender; event factors, such as the severity, duration, and frequency of trauma; and environmental factors, such as the victim's support system.

#### *Work Stress Theory*

Theoretically, the phenomenon of client violence can be studied using the tenants of work stress theory. This theory comes from a psychological stress framework which says that psychological stress is "a particular relationship between the person and

environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being” (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p.19). It is therefore the relationship or the transaction between the stimulus and response that indicates a stressor. What is stressful to one person may not be stressful to another. It is the appraisal of the situation that ultimately determines the outcome for an individual. The cognitive appraisal of a stimulus such as workplace violence determines the degree of stress and therefore the level of response. In the primary appraisal, the individual assesses whether they have been harmed and whether they may be at risk of the same harm in the future. The secondary appraisal helps to determine what will be done to manage the threat of harm. For example, Barling (1996) hypothesized that fear of violence would be a major consequence of workplace violence. Fear, in turn, has been found to be associated with thoughts about quitting an organization (Rogers & Kelloway, 1997). When a victim of workplace violence appraises his/her situation as threatening, fear of future victimization may act as a mediator to determine whether the person will cope by wanting to withdraw from the organization or the career to which they were previously committed.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) stated that fear is the manifestation of a specific stress appraisal. Changes in fear level indicate that there are changes in the way the person is appraising his/her relationship with the environment. If the person has higher self efficacy or belief that they can master a situation, they feel a sense of control and appraise a situation as being less threatening. Application of this theory to client violence would indicate that when a social work student has a stronger belief that a future client

violence situation can be avoided, there will be less fear of future violence, which would in turn have positive occupational effects for the student.

### *Theory of Occupational Commitment*

Theoretical discussion of occupational commitment has pointed to at least three views of an individual's career behaviors. The first is a differentialist view espoused by Van Maanen & Schein (1977). They emphasized individual or personality predictors of how an individual views their career. The organizational view, discussed by the same researchers, emphasized organizational or situational factors as influences of a person's career motivation. Using these ideas, London (1983) intertwined the two, stating that both individual and organizational variables may influence one's career choice and continuance.

### *Theory on Beliefs, Attitudes, Intentions, and Behaviors*

Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory on the relationship between beliefs, attitudes, intentions and behaviors may be beneficial to help explain career withdrawal intentions. This theory emphasizes the role of behavioral intentions in understanding the relationship between attitudes and behaviors. Beliefs are developed from information that we have about an object or incident. Attitudes are then developed about the object or incident based on the beliefs that one has. Favorable attitudes are generally developed toward objects that we associate with good things and unfavorable attitudes are typically associated towards objects we associate with bad things. Behavioral intentions then develop on the basis of a person's attitudes. Fishbein and Ajzen define a behavioral intention as "a person's subjective probability that he will perform some behavior"

(p. 288). Behavioral intentions are typically followed by the behavior itself. Using Fishbein and Ajzen's theoretical model, studies have looked at behavioral intentions to stay or to leave a place of employment. Mobley and colleagues (1979) proposed a complex model of employment turnover and stated that the best predictor of turnover is intention to quit. Though the current study looks at career withdrawal intentions, as opposed to employment withdrawal intentions, this theory may help to explain students' behavioral intentions to stay or to leave the profession of social work.

### *Prevalence and Incidence of Violence to Social Workers*

#### *Global Studies in Violence to Social Workers*

In addition to documentation of prevalence of client violence towards social workers in the U.S., studies have documented the prevalence of violence in social work in Great Britain (Littlechild, 2005; Lyons, Lavalley, & Grimwood, 1995; Norris, 1990; Rowett, 1986; Smith & Nursten, 1998), Australia (Green, Gregory, & Mason, 2003), Finland (Littlechild, 2005), Scotland (Leadbetter, 1993) and Canada (MacDonald & Siroich, 2005; Schat & Kelloway, 2003; Snow, 1994). Rowett (1986) published the first major study in England, which found that when 132 program managers were asked about incidents of violence towards their workers, the projected ratio of physical assault was 1 in 259 workers. However, when Rowett asked 728 social workers directly, 1 in 4 had actually been assaulted, suggesting that program managers may not always be aware when their workers are encountering violence or they may minimize or deny the extent of client violence towards workers. This is pertinent to the current study because it indicates that program managers may not be aware of the extent of client violence. More accurate

accounting of client violence may best come from those who have directly or indirectly encountered the violence.

Another international study that has relevance to the current study was completed by Norris (1990). The key contribution to the literature was the finding that much client violence is never reported. All of 38 field worker and residential children's home social workers in Norris' first study had been threatened, yet only half of them had told managers about the threats. His further study with 79 social service and probation agencies found that 40% did not monitor threats towards workers. This study found an average of 2.6 incidents of client violence annually. Another study in Scotland likewise found that reporting client violence was a problem (Leadbetter, 1993). This researcher was one of the few who has used multimodal methods to investigate client violence. One of the four methods used was a two week diary study with residential staff at a children's home. It was found that 53 staff listed 131 incidents of verbal abuse, 14 incidents of moderate physical aggression, and 10 incidents of physical assault. Of major concern was the fact that none of the incidents was formally reported.

Lyons, LaValle, and Grimwood (1995) conducted the only study to date that looked at violence as a possible reason for turnover in the profession of social work. They completed a study on career patterns of 791 social workers who had graduated from 21 randomly chosen Welsh and English academic institutions in four predetermined years: 1991, 1987, 1983, and 1979. The intent of the study was to determine how many social workers left the profession after their training and the reasons for leaving. A pilot survey indicated that verbal and physical abuse by clients was one potential reason that social

workers may leave the field. Respondents reported that 92% of the respondents had been verbally abused, 32% experienced physical violence and 68% were threatened with violence in their career. Twenty four percent of those who had left the field of social work had experienced client violence and another twelve percent of those who were victims of client violence said that they had considered leaving their career.

A multidisciplinary study of healthcare providers in Ontario, Canada included a small percentage (6.9%) of social workers in an overall sample of 225 providers (Schat & Kelloway, 2003). This study is one of only a few studies that have looked at attempting to reduce adverse consequences of workplace aggression and violence. By using a series of moderated multiple regressions, the researchers found that organizational support moderated the effects of physical violence, vicarious exposure to violence, and psychological aggression on emotional well being, somatic health, and job-related affect. It did not moderate fear of future violence. Though this study included only a small number of social workers, from the work stress theoretical perspective, it contributed much toward understanding possible negative effects of workplace violence on personal and professional outcomes.

In one of four international qualitative studies, Smith and Nursten (1998) asked 24 social workers from a social service department in England to recall one distressing experience in their working life and to comment on what had been helpful in their attempts to process the experience. Fear of being assaulted was the experience that was most often mentioned by the participants, indicating that the psychological stress response of fear can have potent long term effects on social workers.

Because of the possible differences in expectations for social workers in different countries, it may be difficult to generalize the results of international studies to social workers in the U.S. However, these studies suggest that violence against social workers is a global phenomenon that demands to be addressed by the social work profession as a whole.

#### *U. S. Studies of Social Work Violence*

The earliest studies in the U.S. containing information about social workers' exposure to client violence were studies of multiple disciplines (Bernstein, 1981; Whitman, Armao, & Dent, 1976). These studies indicated that social workers were not harmed as often as psychiatrists (Bernstein, 1981) and nurses (Carmel & Hunter, 1989) but they were being attacked and threatened at substantial rates and sometimes injured by clients (Carmel & Hunter, 1993).

A more current multidisciplinary study surveyed all staff at the University Of Rochester Medical Center Of Psychiatry concerning incidents of endangerment, threats and assaults (Privitera, Wiesman, Cerulli, Tu, & Groman, 2005). With a total sample of 380, the clinical staff made up 69% of the respondents. Among them were 32 persons with an MSW and 13 persons with a BSW. Forty six percent of those with an MSW had been endangered, 41% had been threatened, and 9% had been assaulted. Of the individuals with a BSW, 46% had been endangered, 62% had been threatened and 23% had been assaulted. Though nurses, physicians and advanced practical nurses had significantly more incidents of all types, the percentages for social workers were substantially high.



*Client violence studies in specific regions of the U.S.* Several studies about client violence have been focused in particular geographic areas of the country, making it somewhat difficult to generalize the findings to social work workers across the U.S. Among these have been a study in Massachusetts (Atkinson, 1991), California and Pennsylvania (Newhill, 1996; Newhill & Wexler, 1997), Montana (Horejsic & Garthwait, 1994), a western state (Rey, 1996), an unidentified state (Schultz, 1987; Schultz, 1989), Santa Fe Springs, California (Castellanos, 1998), New England (Horwitz, 2006) and two in Los Angeles (Seeck, 1998; Vergara, 2006).

One of the earliest studies to document the problem of violence towards social workers in the U.S. was a study of 150 randomly selected social service workers in an unidentified state (Schultz, 1987). Interestingly, several questionnaires that discussed some blatant forms of violence such as attempted homicide and forcible rape were not included because they occurred after office hours. The study showed that 65% of the respondents had encountered violence in the work setting. This study also documented verbal threats to harm or kill the social worker in every social service setting that was studied.

Rey (1996) completed a study in a western state using both a purposive sample of 150 agency directors and a random sample of 300 licensed social workers from an undisclosed source. A total of 175 social workers responded. More than 80% of the directors and social workers felt that safety issues in social work were an increasing concern. A majority (89%) of the respondents had been verbally abused by a client and 23% had been physically assaulted during their careers.

In the largest regional study, Newhill (1996) found that 78% of the 1,129 social workers from California and Pennsylvania agreed that client violence toward social workers is a significant issue and 52% said that they sometimes worried about their own safety. Fifty-seven percent had experienced at least one type of client violence.

In Wrenn's (2005) study of 600 NASW members from the state of Illinois she addressed the relationship between personal trauma exposure and secondary traumatic stress for social workers. One of the specific areas of inquiry included social workers' exposure to occupational violence, particularly client violence. Twenty two percent had been assaulted by a client in their career, with 6% experiencing assault within the past year. Forty percent of the respondents had been threatened during their career and 10% had been threatened within the past year. The majority (74%) of the participants had experienced verbal abuse during their career, with 40% experiencing verbal abuse within the past year. Twenty nine percent had been threatened with a lawsuit during their career. Social workers with recent exposures to lawsuit threats and verbal abuse had higher levels of secondary traumatic stress. Overall, workers with exposure to direct workplace stress tended to score higher on secondary traumatic stress. Qualitative responses indicated that positive co-worker and administrative support helped to mitigate the effects of workplace stress and trauma. This study was one of only two social work studies that empirically examined both direct and indirect trauma effects on workers exposed to client violence.

*Client violence in specific practice settings in the U.S.* Some client violence studies in the U.S. have focused on social workers in particular practice settings. Because

these studies focus on particular groups of social workers, they cannot necessarily be generalized to the entire population of American social workers. The most studied practitioners have been child protection workers (Castellanos, 1998; Horejsic & Garthwait, 1994; Horwitz, 2006; Newhill & Wexler, 1997; Song, 2005). Newhill and Wexler (1996) found that child and youth social workers were significantly more likely to consider violence toward social workers to be a significant issue for the profession in general and in their practice specifically and they were more likely to worry about their own safety while working with clients. Forty one percent of this sample had experience at least one type of violence. Song (2005) reported a slightly lower percent (31%) of child and family workers who had experienced client violence in the past year. These percentages greatly contrast with the 97% of Horejsic and Garthwait's (1994) 166 children's services workers who had been screamed at or cursed at in the preceding 12 months. Twenty six percent of those verbally abused said that such abuse happens at least once per week, with one third of the workers having been threatened with death. These findings resonate more with Canadian child welfare workers, 95% of whom had been verbally assaulted (Snow, 1994).

A notable child and youth social worker study was a study that focused on prevalence of client violence toward child and family social workers and its effects on burnout, organizational commitment, and turnover intention (Song, 2005). This study has been the only study to take into account the mediating psychological stress response to workplace violence, rather than focusing strictly on direct associations between exposure to client violence and negative effects. This study was also first social work study to test

a proposed structural model by using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) techniques to address the concept of client violence and to examine an association between client violence and organizational commitment. The SEM found that past victimization had a direct and positive effect on fear of future victimization. Fear of future victimization then had a direct and negative effect on affective social workers' commitment to their organization. Additionally, when the social workers scored higher on burnout scales, they were more likely to have intentions to leave their jobs. However, when they had stronger commitment due their identification with the organization (affective organizational commitment) they were less inclined to contemplate leaving the organization (turnover intentions). Exposure to client violence had a direct positive effect on turnover intention.

School social workers are the only other social workers from a specific practice setting that have been studied concerning exposure to client violence (Astor et al., 1998). Researchers found that one third of the 576 school social workers feared for their safety, with a significantly higher percentage (71%) of inner city social workers having fear for safety. Almost half of the workers in inner city schools who reported being fearful also thought of leaving the profession of social work. Thirty five percent of the respondents had been physically assaulted within the past year.

*Methods of sampling in U.S. studies.* Most of the social work client violence studies in the U.S. have drawn at least part of the samples randomly. Two exceptions to this were Atkinson's (1991) and Vergara's (2006) qualitative studies. Atkinson's study involved semi-structured open-ended personal interviews with eight clinical workers who had been assaulted by a client within the past year. Though only three were social

workers, this study broadened knowledge about client violence by talking about worker response to violence. Fear and anxiety, particularly about being in situations that were reminiscent of the assault, were prevalent in all of the workers, yet these fears were contained in the workplace. Workers generally looked for support from their colleagues and did not discuss their fears at home. Making sense of the assaults helped to ameliorate the negative effects from the assault. The majority of workers felt that assault is always possible and they had increased awareness of the need for precautions.

Vergara's (2006) study included 15 social workers in Los Angeles County who were purposefully sought from the researcher's personal social network. The focus of the study was on violence experienced by workers who regularly made home visits. The participants had been doing home visits for an average of 12.5 years. The majority (86.7%) of the sample were workers of a minority race or ethnicity. None of the social workers were under 30 years of age. Vergara found that the majority of her sample had experienced client violence while completing home visits. Most had reported the violence to supervisors, though they had not officially documented it. They were overall pleased with the support of their supervisors and organizations. Like Atkinson's (1991) sample, many of these workers were cautious about discussing their fears about job safety with family and friends. This is one of the few studies that included data from a large percentage of minority social workers and the only client violence study to date to focus exclusively on the practice of home visiting.

Two other U.S. studies have been non-probability studies that cannot be generalized to the larger population of U.S. social workers. The first was Horwitz's

(2006) study involving a convenience sample of 273 social workers who attended training seminars that he was conducting. This study's focus was on the trauma effects of negative workplace events, including being directly or indirectly exposed to client violence.

The second non-probability study was Castellanos' (1998) study of 31 workers from five Department of Children and Family Services offices. Its focus was on social workers' perceptions about working in dangerous neighborhoods. The sample size of this study was very small; however, the study merits include the unusually high percentage of ethnic and racial minorities and the percentage of workers with few years of experience. The majority (76%) of the workers had been at the agency less than three years and 71% were minority social workers. Sixty one percent of the workers had been involved in a threatening situation during a home visit and almost 84% knew another worker who had been involved in a threatening situation. In spite of the fact that many had been threatened, at least half (51.6%) said that they had no problem working in an inner-city area.

Of client violence studies that have drawn samples randomly, the majority have selected social workers from the national NASW membership (Astor, Behre, Wallace, & Fravill, 1998; Beaver, 1998; Guterman, Jayarante, & Bargel, 1996; Jayarante, Vinokur-Kaplan, Nagda, & Chess, 1995; Jayarante, Croxton, & Mathison, 2004; Ringstad, 2005, Song, 2005) and state NASW memberships (Newhill, 1997; Newhill & Wexler, 1997, Wrenn, 2005). These studies have yielded usable responses from between 269 social workers (Song, 2005) and 1129 workers (Newhill, 1996), thus the studies are

strengthened by both probability sampling methods and larger sample sizes. Other variations of probability sampling have been random draws of 150 social service workers from an undisclosed source (Schultz, 1987) and of 300 licensed social workers from an undisclosed source (Rey, 1996).

There have been five studies that have used probability sampling of large numbers of social workers in all practice arenas throughout the United States (Beaver, 1999; Jayarante, Vinokur-Kaplan, Nagda, & Chess, 1995; Jayarante, Croxton, & Mattison, 2004; Guterman, Jayarante, & Bargal, 1996; Ringstad, 2005). Each of these studies had added strength in that they sought more information than the prevalence of violence information gathered in many of the other social work client violence studies. Additionally four of the five studies asked questions about client violence in similar ways, thus adding the possibility of comparing and contrasting the findings. Only Ringstad's (2005) national study used different questions concerning exposure to client violence.

Jayarante and his first set of colleagues (1995) studied 633 social workers randomly drawn from the 1993 NASW membership. Students, retired and unemployed workers were excluded from the study. The study contained questions about exposure to client violence as well as items about job stress, psychosocial strain, and social support. Respondents were asked whether they had directly encountered various types of violence and if a coworker in their agency had encountered those types of violence within the past year. Seventeen percent of the sample reported being physically threatened by clients and a small number (2.8%) reported being physically assaulted. Forty one percent said that

they knew of a coworker who had been physically threatened. Almost half of the respondents had encountered verbal abuse and 53% knew of verbal abuse to coworkers. Workers who had been threatened reported significantly higher levels of irritability, depression, anxiety, and burnout. These researchers found that workers who had experienced client violence were no more likely to make an effort to find work with another employer than workers who had not experienced client violence. Researchers used logistic regression to analyze the effect of age, gender and experience on experiencing client violence. They also did bivariate comparison of individuals who experienced abuse and threats in the workplace with individuals who had not had such experiences. There was no analysis of the effect of ethnicity on experiences of violence. Some preliminary associations might have been valuable, considering the fact that there were about 60 minority respondents.

In a study similar to the 1995 study that Jayarante coauthored, he and colleagues Croxton, and Mathison (2004) received surveys from 507 NASW members. Respondents were asked if they had experienced different types of client violence directly or if they had known of a co-worker being the victim of the same list of violent acts. This study did a multistage random sampling process in which they first drew a sample of African American, Asian American, Hispanic, and White social workers who had a MSW and were in direct practice. The second stage of sampling drew a sample of NASW members who identified their primary practice setting as private practice, thus allowing the researchers to examine private practitioners separately. Researchers found that verbal abuse was pervasive in all settings that they studied. Additionally, 22.8% of the



respondents had been physically threatened by a client. Institutional mental health and child protective service settings were noted to be the most dangerous settings for the social workers they questioned. There was a significant difference in the numbers of private practitioners who had been threatened with violence by clients (9%) versus agency practitioners who had been threatened (22.8%). Similarly, only 1.6% of private practitioners knew a colleague that had been physically assaulted, compared to 24.6% of agency practitioners. A particular strength of this study was that more data was collected from different race groups, thus allowing for better analysis of the effects of ethnicity and race on exposure to client violence.

A doctoral dissertation explored the extent of client violence against social workers and how client violence impacted the functioning and well-being of the social workers, using a random sample of 1500 national NASW members (Beaver, 1999). With a 62.8% return rate, 942 social workers responded. The mean age of the sample was 48.2. Only 8.4% of the sample was aged 24-34, with no social worker under the age of 24. Ninety three percent had a MSW. Only 2% had a BSW. Seventy five percent had more than 10 years experience and only one participant had less than 2 years experience. Sixty five percent of the social workers had experienced some type of client violence in their careers, with verbal abuse being the most frequent type of violence. The annual prevalence rate for experiencing any type of violence was 23.4%. Respondents reported a total of 1,227 violent incidents in the past year. Seventeen percent of those incidents were physical assaults. Beaver found that social workers who had experienced client violence were significantly more likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs. Additionally, the study

analyzed the worker's level of burnout using Maslach's three subscales of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. Beaver found that there was a significant positive correlation between emotional exhaustion scores and violence scores, but the correlations for depersonalization and personal accomplishment were not significant. General health of the workers was also measured and there was no significant correlation between levels of client violence and levels of general health. When all of the factors were entered into a multiple regression test, age was the most significant predictor of client violence.

In 2005, Ringstad investigated the aggressive and assaultive interchanges between social workers and their clients, using responses from a national random sample of NASW members. She had a 34% response rate, receiving questionnaires from 1,029 social workers. Ringstad is the only social work researcher to use a standardized instrument, subscales from the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale, to measure incidents of physical and psychological aggression. Respondents indicated which types of incidents they had experienced in their career and within the past year. Additionally they were asked about being both the victim and the perpetrator in the violent incidents. The study found that 86% of the respondents had experienced some type of client violence during their career. Psychological aggression, including threats, verbal abuse and property destruction, was the most common type of client violence, with 1,029 respondents experiencing 8,113 incidents in the past 12 months. Thirty percent of the respondents had experienced physical assault in their career and almost 15% had experienced physical assault (695 actual incidents) in the past year. Ringstad emphasized that the

overrepresentation of experienced workers might have inflated the career rates of client violence, as it might be surmised that the longer a person is in practice, the more violence she might suffer.

One cross-national study did a comparison of experience of client violence between social workers in the United States and social workers in Israel (Guterman, Jayarante, & Bargal, 1996). The study included a random sample of 1200 NASW members in the U.S. and 1,497 members of the Israel Association of Social Workers. Response rates were comparable, with 62.4% of the U.S. workers responding and 60.1% of the Israeli workers responding. The survey was similar to the one that Jayarante had used in his two previous U.S. studies, though the Israeli version of the survey was translated into Hebrew. The questions about workplace violence were imbedded in a larger questionnaire about workplace conditions. Eighty-eight percent of the U.S. workers held a MSW, whereas the majority (77%) of the Israeli sample held a BSW. Another major difference in the respondents was that a majority (68%) of the U.S. workers worked in private settings, whereas only 8% of the Israeli workers worked in private settings. The researchers used both chi-square to examine differences in patterns of difference cross-nationally and logistic regression to examine predictive differences cross-nationally among six types of violence. The study found that 48.8% of Americans and 47.4% of Israelis had experienced at least one form of victimization from clients within the past year. Both groups experienced comparable levels of verbal abuse and physical abuse. Americans experienced more physical threats. Of interest to this study is the fact that in the U.S. less experienced workers had higher levels of physical threats,

physical assaults, and verbal abuse within the past year. However, in the Israeli sample, increased experience did not decrease exposure to client violence. Merits of this study are that it is the only cross-national that has been completed on this subject and it uses a substantial random sample of social workers in the U.S. However, the survey excluded social workers who were not working directly with clients, so it is possible that student members were not included. If responses from students were not included, the researchers may have lost an opportunity to gain information from prospective social workers who are regularly interning in agencies.

*Summary of U.S. social work client violence studies.* There have been more than 20 client violence studies conducted in the United States within the past 30 years. Almost half of those studies sampled respondents in a limited geographic area. Six studies (including 4 from limited geographic areas) addressed only social workers from particular practice areas. Five national probability studies with large sample sizes may be the best studies from which to generalize the client violence experiences of social workers throughout the U.S.

A major limitation with many of the studies on social workers in the U.S. is that the samples are often cited as having a combination of the following characteristics: female, White, MSW, a mean age in the mid 40's to early 50's, and many years of experience (Astor et al., 1998; Beaver, 1998; Horejsic & Garthwait, 1994; Newhill, 1996; Newhill & Wexler, 1997; Jayarante et al., 1995; Ringstad, 2005; Song, 2005; Wrenn, 2005). In short, the studies that used a random draw from the NASW membership may have results that are generalizable to the population of social workers in the U.S., but it is

unknown if these results are informative concerning the client violence experience of social work students.

### *Violence in Social Work Education - Student Perspective*

Studies of social work students have begun to show that field students are falling prey to violence while in the course of completing their practicum experience. In an early review of the literature, Star (1984) included information from personal communication with Hawthorne about an informal survey conducted among first and second year graduate social work students attending the University of Southern California. Results of this survey indicated that client violence was one of the three most prevalent issues confronting students when they were beginning field placements. Regardless of agency setting, every student in this survey had worked with one overtly or potentially explosive client. This study was not published and it was transmitted via conversation, making it vulnerable to inaccuracies in the data. However, its merit is that is the first time that client violence toward social work students is specifically discussed in the literature.

Tully, Kropf, and Price (1993) completed a study of social work students at the University of Georgia. There were 49 BSW students and 72 MSW students. They reported that during the practicum, 26% of students had been verbally abused or threatened. Thirteen percent were threatened physically and 13% felt unsafe or threatened during their practicum experience. An additional 25% had known or seen violence toward other personnel in their practicum site. This study indicated that there was no significant difference in exposure to violence based on practicum site. The students in this study had a 100% response rate to the questionnaire, likely because the surveys were

handed to the students by faculty. Field educators also received mailed surveys and 96 (74%) responded. Sixty two percent stated that they had been verbally abused by a client during their career and 24% had been physically assaulted by a client.

Mama's (2001) study of 37 senior BSW students in New Jersey revealed that 54% had been affected by some type of violence. Fifteen percent of those students reported experiencing physical assault by a client, while 49% had experienced verbal abuse in the form of verbal attack, cursing, or sexual advances. Additionally, 40% of the students encountered threatening behavior. Mama used the same survey that was earlier used by Tully et al (1993). Seventeen field educators also completed the survey. Eighty five percent had experienced verbal abuse by a client in their career. Twenty nine percent had been physically assaulted in the form of being slapped, punched or robbed. Mama's sample is a very small convenience sample, which prohibits any generalization from the findings. The statistics reported were frequencies which may have been suitable for that phase of research on client violence of social work students, but they lack the stability of more rigorous analysis.

Knight (1999) studied 110 BSW students from the University of Maryland. She did a test prior to the beginning of placement and another toward the end of the placement. The scores from the two tests could only be aggregated because individual students were not matched on their pretest and posttest. At the beginning of placement, 37% of the students felt that there might be a risk to their personal safety while working with clients. At the end of placement 17% of the students reported that they actually felt that their personal safety was at risk with their clients. This reduction in percentage was

in spite of the fact that during the course of the practicum, 33% of the students were verbally threatened and 19% were physically threatened. Knight surmised that actual experiences with clients might have served to reduce fears for the students' safety. Students in the study who did not like the way that the school responded to their encounter with violence had a higher tendency to rethink their career choice and to believe that social work is a dangerous profession. This study involved students from only one institution and the students were predominantly from the region where the school is located. Analyses were limited to descriptive data and one series of *t* tests.

In 1998, Lyter and Abbott (as cited in Lyter and Abbott, 2007) did an anonymous safety survey with 39 students who were in a social work practicum. Two thirds of the students were fearful of clients. A third (34%) had been threatened by a client. Three (9%) had been physically assaulted, though only one had reported this to the field director. The other students said that compassion and commitment kept them from reporting the incidents. Nothing is known about the methodology of this study other than the fact that it was anonymous. The small sample size prohibits generalizing the results.

The largest client violence study of social work students to date was completed by Knight (1996). She surveyed 380 BSW students from 8 schools in Maryland, Virginia and the Washington D.C. area and had a response rate of 258 (67.9%). in this study 20.9% reported at least one incident in which they had been verbally or physically assaulted. Of those, 83% felt that their encounter with danger made them more cautious in practice. Eighty-five percent of all of the students in the study intended to pursue an MSW within three years. These students were significantly more likely to view social

work as a dangerous profession. Additionally, they were more likely to be uncomfortable engaging in traditional social work practice activities such as making home visits, working evening hours, working directly with groups and families, and visiting resources in the community. They were also more likely to desire to go into private practice. Knight interpreted these findings to mean that students with the more advanced skills may be the least likely to engage in the most critical social work activities. Knight stated that this was an exploratory study in which certain statistical analyses, such as correlation matrixes, could not be completed due to the small number in the sample.

Client violence toward 36 MSW students was the subject of a master's thesis at California State University (Schwarzmueller, 1998). This rather small response rate (25.7%) was obtained via a recruitment letter in student mailboxes. This study used the same survey that Knight (1999) had developed. Almost half (48.6%) said that they worked with potentially violent clients at least some of the time. The more familiar the students were with the community where they worked the less concerned they were for their safety. Analysis included Pearson's correlations and some *t*-tests. The researcher acknowledged that due to the homogenous sample it was not possible to complete any tests using demographic variables of age and gender. Additionally, she acknowledged giving the survey when students were busy trying to meet thesis deadlines. One student wrote in a comment that some of the questions on the survey were confusing.

Only one study has been done comparing awareness and fear of violence of social work students versus students from another profession. Elwood and Rey (1996) compared the violence experiences and training of social work and medical students,



comparing a sample of 78 social work students and 46 medical students from the University of Nevada. Seventy five percent of the medical students had heard reports of violence from peers or had observed violence in medical settings and 8.6% of them had been physically assaulted by patients. Less social work students (43.6%) were aware of other social workers who were victims of client violence, but a similar number (6.4%) had been directly personally assaulted. Many (41%) of the social work students were fearful of client violence by their clients. These researchers acknowledged a possible sample bias due to the differential manner in which the data was gathered. The medical students had surveys mailed to their homes, where-as the social work students received the surveys in field classes. For the social work students, the surveys were completed in the presence of the researcher; thus, they had the benefit of being able to clarify questions or concerns about items on the survey. Another limitation of the study was that the sample sizes were small and the study was conducted in one university. Merits of the study include its comparison groups.

The only international study of social work students occurred in Australia (Maidment, 2003). There were 39 participants in their third and fourth year of their BSW program. Data collection consisted of a mailed questionnaire sent at the end of the field placement. Statistics reported were predominantly frequencies, with one chi square table. Maidment found that 31% of the students had been verbally abused by clients and 2.5% had been physically abused. Again, in this study, there is small convenience sample and findings cannot be generalized to other social work programs, particularly social work programs in the United States that do not have comparable requirements for field.

### *Violence in Social Work Education-Field Director Perspective*

There have been four studies of field directors' perceptions of client violence toward their students. Ellison (1996) sent a questionnaire to 200 randomly selected CSWE accredited schools and received response from 147 schools, including 96 BSW programs and 51 MSW programs. It found that incidents had occurred to students in 23 of the schools. Seven incidents involved students who required medical or police intervention as a result of client violence. These schools reported incidents of violence occurring to 77 students. The most severe incident involved a student being held hostage by a client. Though Ellison asked social work schools to send copies of their safety policies, only 5 (2.5%) complied with the request. Of these five schools, only one had a published mechanism for reporting client violence. Ellison acknowledged that it was possible that many incidents could have gone unreported, especially if the incident did not result in injury. Since "this study did not include contact with students, it is difficult to tell if the reported incidents are just the 'tip of the iceberg'" (p. 87).

The same year that Ellison's study was published, a qualitative study was published by Wayne and Raskin (1996). This study included 22 structured phone interviews with field directors in cities identified as having highest rates of violent crime. Ten (45%) of the directors reported that they knew of social work students who were victims of crime such as muggings. Ninety five percent said that they had no formal policies concerning students in high-crime areas, though many of them said that they were giving the issue serious thought. Several reported that they left it up to the field agencies to establish formal policies. Nearly all of the respondents said that personal

safety was a concern for at least some of their students, with 31.5% saying that it was a concern for most or all of their students. A question was asked about how the field directors responded to students who turned down placements because of the students' fear of the neighborhood. Three (14%) said that they would stand firm on their recommendation, since social work students are expected to work in such areas. An additional 18% of the directors said that they would replace the students, but they would question the student's fit with the profession of social work. While most of the respondents stated that their school environments encouraged the freedom of students and faculty to express concerns about personal safety, two said that some faculty members were embarrassed to express their fears. They further stated that they believed that some faculty perceives expression of fears about personal safety as a lack of commitment to the profession. This study has limited generalizability as it includes only a small number of field directors and they represent only those social work schools in high-crime cities, yet it was useful in beginning to recognize the issue of student safety, especially as it pertains to communities that may be more dangerous.

Reeser and Wertkin (2001) sent questionnaires to all 418 social work schools that were CSWE accredited. They received response from 258 schools. They found that 42% of the programs had at least one student to be threatened by a client in the preceding two years and 13% had a student to experience physical assault. A large majority (86%) of the directors said that more attention needs to be given to the issue of student safety in the field. This was a very thorough study that was largely focused on safety training needs of students and how these are met in social work programs.

A more recent random survey of 200 CSWE accredited BSW programs had only nineteen schools (10.5% return rate) to reply (Faria & Kendra, 2007). Most of the schools that replied had programs with fewer than 100 students, had only BSW programs and were at private institutions. Five of the programs (26%) stated that within the past five years, there had been incidents of verbal or physical violence directed towards a student. The researchers acknowledged that the small response rate made it difficult to generalize the findings to all BSW programs.

### *Characteristics of Violence towards Social Worker*

#### *Types of Violence*

*Direct exposure to client violence.* All empirical studies on client violence towards social workers or social work students have documented direct exposure to client violence. Many studies document the prevalence of physical and verbal assaults. Physical violence may include grabbing, slapping, kicking, being hit with fists, and being pushed to the floor (Schultz, 1987). Psychological aggression may include the following acts by clients: insulting or swearing, shouting or yelling, stomping away during disagreement, saying or doing something to spite, threatening to hit or throw something, destroying something that belonged to the social worker, or calling the worker fat or ugly. Ringstad (2005) found that 62% of her sample of more than 1000 NASW members had experienced psychological aggression in the past 12 months. They reported 8,113 acts of psychological aggression in the past 12 months, compared with 695 acts of physical aggression in the same time period. A study of juvenile probation officers, some of whom were social workers, found that verbal or psychological violence was much more

prevalent than physical violence (Rapp-Paglicci, 2004). In a qualitative study on this subject, Littlechild (2005) did a content analysis of open ended questions on 21 questionnaires completed by child protection social workers in England and Finland and he completed seven in depth interviews with workers who had experienced violence in the field. He found that physical violence was relatively rare, but that “indirect violence” (p.67) was common, less obvious, and “more pervasive and insidious” (p. 67) than physical aggression. In this case, Littlechild was referring to violence that occurred directly to the workers, but that did not consist of overt physical actions. For example, threats of further actions from clients towards the social workers or their families seemed to have the greatest negative impact on the social workers. It was stated that the term ‘incident’ was inadequate to describe some of the ongoing experiences of workers. He suggested using the term ‘developing violent scenarios’, which doesn’t imply one incident, but “an environment where threats are made and actions taken to frighten and disempower the worker” (p.67).

*Indirect exposure to client violence.* Social workers may be negatively affected vicariously by hearing of colleagues being harmed by clients or threatened by clients. in a study of work related trauma effects in 273 child protection social workers, Horwitz (2006) found that vicarious events were more highly associated with trauma effects than were direct events. He studied the trauma effects of negative workplace events, including being directly or indirectly exposed to physical assault, property damage, or being placed in fear of safety by a client. He found verbal abuse and threats were significantly positively associated with workplace trauma effects. He speculated that vicarious events

may be more “toxic” (p.14) because they reflect the social worker’s lack of control.

Rapp-Paglicci (2004) found that probation officers who had been personally victimized had less concern about their safety than those who had not been victimized. She speculated that those who had not been victimized might have increased concern due to hearing about colleagues who had been victimized.

### *Personal/Individual Factors Influencing Client Violence*

*Gender.* Several studies have indicated that males are at higher risk of client violence than females. National Institute of Social Work Workforce Studies in England found that 48% of male social workers had experienced violence versus 29% of females (McLean, 2000, as cited in Brockmann, 2002). In the U.S., a regional study of workers from California and Pennsylvania found that males were more likely to encounter client violence, though they were also more likely to be practicing in areas where more client violence occurred (Newhill, 1996). A national random sample of social workers from the U.S. found that males experienced more physical threats and assaults than female social workers (Jayarante et al., 1995). Other national studies of NASW members have similarly reported that male social workers were significantly more likely than female social workers to be victims of client violence (Jayarante, Croxton, & Mattison, 2004; Ringstad, 2005). Similarly, Beaver (1999) found males to experience client violence more often, but the results were not statistically significant.

Two studies had contradictory findings. Song (2005) found mixed results, reporting that males had higher frequencies of physical assault, threat of physical harm, property damage and physical assault or threat against family members, but females

experienced more verbal abuse. In Song's study, neither *t*- tests nor chi square analyses indicated significant statistical differences between male and female exposure to violence. Guterman, Jayarante, and Bargel (1996) found that male workers in the U. S. had higher levels of client victimization via physical threats and assaults, but this was not true for the Israeli workers also surveyed in this study.

*Age.* Younger workers in agency settings have been found to be at greater risk of physical threat, threat of law suit, verbal abuse and sexual harassment than older colleagues (Jayarante et al., 2004). Additionally, it was found that younger workers have more fear of verbal abuse and physical assault, regardless of whether they were agency practitioners or private practitioners. Similarly, Jayarante and colleagues (1995) reported that younger workers experienced significantly more verbal abuse than older workers. In that study the younger workers were also significantly more likely to know co-workers who had experienced verbal abuse and were also more likely to report knowing co-workers who had experienced physical threats and threats of lawsuits. In his national study Beaver (1999) also found a significant negative correlation between the age of the social worker and experience with client violence. Likewise, Song's (2005) national study of child welfare social workers found a significant negative correlation between age and exposure to client violence, indicating that younger workers experience more client violence. Another U.S. study indicated that social workers' age was significantly statistically related to experience of physical violence, but the researcher stated that there was not a substantive difference between the mean age of those physically assaulted ( $M = 53.4$ ) and the mean age of non-assaulted social workers ( $M = 55$ ) (Ringstad, 2005).

Guterman and colleagues (1996) found that younger social workers in the U.S. experienced more exposure to client violence, but this wasn't the case for Israeli social workers. However, this finding was intermingled with a discussion on worker experience and it is not clear if the researchers were referring solely to age as a variable. It may be that these researchers implied that less experienced workers were younger.

One social work student study found that younger students were somewhat more likely to express discomfort working in the inner city and they were more likely to view social work as a dangerous profession (Knight, 1996). In this study only BSW students were questioned, but the mean age was 29, indicating a mixture of traditional and non-traditional aged students.

*Experience.* Less experienced workers may be the recipients of violent acts more than experienced workers. In one early study of psychotherapists it was found that workers with 11 years or more experience were assaulted or threatened at a ratio of 1: 4 compared to those with less than 11 years experience (Bernstein, 1981). A more recent study similarly indicated that clinicians in a psychiatric hospital who had more years of mental health experience had statistically fewer incidents of violent episodes (Privitera et al., 2005). Beaver's (1998) national study indicated that the least experienced social workers had the highest annual rate of client violence. The workers with the most years' experience had the lowest mean of incidents. An ANOVA test indicated that experience was significantly related to client violence experience. Guterman and colleagues (1996) also found that less experienced workers in the U.S. had more exposure to client violence, but this wasn't the case for workers in Israel. The researchers stated that this



might be due to differences in the workplace for Israeli and American social workers. It was explained that Israeli social work agencies are hierarchically “flatter” (p. 184); thus, social workers in those agencies might not have as many opportunities to advance in the workplace. The researchers surmised that as American social workers advance in years in their agencies, they may have the latitude to improve their working conditions and to have greater control over the clientele with whom they will work.

Social work student studies have found conflicting evidence regarding how experience affects exposure to client violence. In Knight’s (1996) study of BSW students in eight schools, almost two thirds of all the students felt that personal safety would play at least a limited role in their career decisions; however, those with more practice experience were significantly less likely to feel that personal safety would be a factor in their career decisions. These feelings could have been attributed to another finding that those with more experience were significantly less likely to believe that social work was a dangerous profession.

The only U. S. study to show that more experienced workers suffered more client violence than less experienced social workers was a study of MSW and BSW social work students and field educators done at the University of Georgia (Tully et al., 1993). These researchers that “professionally seasoned MSWs” (p. 197) experienced more client violence than “less experienced student clinicians” (p. 197). Though this statement is not well explained in the study, it is presumed that the researchers are referencing the experience level of students versus the experience level of the field instructors who were

also questioned. Tully and colleagues speculated that less experienced students might be protected from violence by their status as students.

*Ethnicity.* There has been little research on how ethnic minorities are affected by client violence. There is some evidence that workers of minority race/ethnicity in social service settings in the United Kingdom may be disproportionately affected by client violence because of being in lower status jobs and having more likelihood of being in residential work (Butt, 2000, as cited in Brockmann, 2002). It should be noted that numerous social work studies on client violence in the U.K. refer to residential social workers, versus field social workers, and day care social workers (Balloch et al., 1999; Brown, Bute, & Ford, 1986; Norris, 1990; Rowett, 1986). It is implied that residential social workers are those who work consistently with clients in residence. Another U.K. study found that staff from ethnic minorities seemed to be concerned about receiving unsympathetic responses from management and/or colleagues if they were victims of client violence (Rowett, 1986). Thus, they may not report client violence when it has occurred.

Budd, Arvey, and Lawless (1996) found that non-White participants worry more about future exposure to workplace violence even though they experienced workplace violence less than White participants. With some support and some dispute of this finding, a study where Jayarante, Croxton, and Mattison (2004) took precautions to over sample minority social workers found no significant difference in the experiences of client violence between minority practitioners and White practitioners. However, African American social workers were significantly less likely to have fear of almost every type

of client violence that they studied. In their study of school social workers, Astor and colleagues (1998) found that members of ethnic minorities were significantly more likely than White social workers to view the community around the school as dangerous. However, the researchers viewed this finding with caution, because they felt it might stem from the fact that a disproportionate percentage (35%) of inner city school social workers was people of color. One epidemiology summary of several U. S. national workplace violence reports stated that in all the occupations studied, African Americans and Hispanics had higher frequencies and rates of homicide in the workplace (Kraus, 1996). However, it is not known if this finding applies to African Americans and Hispanics in social work agencies.

*Educational level.* Most social work client violence studies have not reported the educational level of the social workers. However, Beaver (1999) found that bachelor's level social workers reported client violence during the past year at a rate that was almost twice the annual rate for the total sample, indicating that education level may have significant influence on experience with client violence. Likewise, Privitera, Weisman, Cerulli, Tu, and Groman (2005) also found that BSW's were endangered, threatened, and assaulted more than MSW's. In contrast, in their study of social work students, Tully and colleagues (1993) found that there was no statistically significant difference between MSW and BSW students on exposure to verbal abuse and threats of harm. The same researchers emphasized that violence is a part of the field placement experience for both MSW's and BSW's.

### *Organizational/Practicum Related Factors Influencing Client Violence*

*Place of client violence.* Only three social work studies have actually compared the experience of client violence in the office versus out of the office. One study found that probation officers were verbally threatened and physically intimidated more often in the office than in the field (Rapp-Paglicci, 2004). There had been some incidents of being held hostage in both the office and the field. In a much larger random study of social workers in Pennsylvania and California, Newhill and Wexler (1997) similarly found that the place of violence was dependent on the type of violence. The home of the client was the place that child and youth workers were threatened most often, whereas property damage occurred most often in the worker's office. Actual attacks of child and youth workers happened in a wide array of locations. Two student studies found that the majority of client violence incidents (70% and 78%, respectively) occurred at the agency versus the home (Mama, 2001; Tully et al., 1993).

Several social work studies have indicated that workers are at high risk for client violence while making home visits. A national study of school social workers found that 94% of the respondents saw home visits as an effective intervention; however, 74% thought that home visits were potentially dangerous (Astor, Behre, Wallace, & Fravil, 1998). In spite of this concern, 82% of these school social workers continued to make home visits to aggressive children.

Two studies with small sample sizes found that large percentages of social workers had experienced client violence while on home visits. One study of 31 child welfare workers found that 61.3% had experienced a threatening experience while on a

home visit and 94% knew a co-worker who had been involved in a threatening situation during a home visit (Castellanos, 1998). In a qualitative study of 15 home visiting social workers in Los Angeles County, Vergara (2006) found that 93% of the participants said that they had experienced one or more types of violence, and none of them felt completely safe. Most (92.9%) had reported incidents of violence to their supervisor and 85.7% were satisfied with their supervisor/s response. A similar percentage (93.3%) was satisfied with the safety policies of the agency.

In a study of in-home nurses, social workers, child management specialists, and behavior management specialists in Canada, 32.8% stated that an in-home client had been verbally aggressive with them within the last six months (Barling, Rogers, & Kelloway, 2001). Some workers (4.5%) had been threatened with a gun and 3.9% had a client to try to hit them within the past six months while they were in the clients' homes.

One student study found that 48% of MSW students indicate that they were concerned about their personal safety at least sometimes when making home visits (Schwarzmueller, 1998). Of this same group 30.1% actually encountered verbal threats during home visits during the practicum and 44.7% were physically threatened during home visits.

*Time of client violence.* Few studies have inquired about the time of day that client violence took place. Working in evening hours has been shown to be a factor that increases anxiety about the possibility of workplace violence. Knight (1999) reported that 39.1% of social work students who were questioned at the end of their practicum stated that they were concerned about their personal safety when working during evening hours.

Another study of MSW students indicated that at the beginning of their internship, 51.7% were at least sometimes concerned about their personal safety while working evening hours (Schwarzmueller, 1998). During their practicum, 15.6% actually encountered verbal threats during evening hours work and 33.3% were physically threatened during evening hours. An analysis of seven national studies indicated that occurrence of homicide and nonfatal assault is more frequent in the afternoon and evening hours than late morning or early afternoon hours (Kraus, 1996).

*Client violence per practice setting.* Violence occurs to social workers in many practice settings, though some are more dangerous than others. Child protection social work has been noted to be particularly hazardous (Jayarante et al., 2004; Newhill, 1996; Schultz, 1987). A national survey of 13,380 child welfare workers in 10 states found that over 70% had been victims of violence or threats of violence (AFCME, 2007). A very small sample ( $N = 31$ ) of children and families workers in California similarly found that 77.4% had been verbally assaulted and 6.5% had been physically assaulted during their career (Castellanos, 1998). In Snow's (1994) qualitative study of 20 children and youth workers in Ontario, all said that they had been kicked, spit upon, and hit by clients using weapons of various sorts. Ninety five percent had been verbally assaulted, with 60% stating that this was a daily occurrence. Almost all (90%) had been hit with an open hand and 75% had been hit with closed fist.

Social workers in residential settings may be exposed to a higher level of physical violence than other social workers (Brockmann, 2002). Leadbetter (2003) noted that children's homes were emerging as the most violence prone setting. His study found that

social workers in three adolescent residential units in Scotland encountered 14 acts of moderate physical aggression ( including slapping, hair pulling, and “the throwing of missiles” (p.625) and 10 incidents of physical assault ( including kicks and punches) in 14 days, indicating that these workers can be at very high risk of harm. Ringstad’s (2005) national study also found that workers in residential settings experienced significantly more physical assaults than other workers.

According to a national study of NASW members, more than 4 out of 5 of licensed social workers in criminal justice agencies have concerns about their safety (NASW, 2006b). Newhill (1996) also found criminal justice settings to among the most dangerous in her study of social workers in California and Pennsylvania. Littlechild (1997) found that 30% of the probation officers he interviewed had been victims of physical violence. Schultz (1987) similarly reported 25% of corrections social workers had been attacked with knives and that corrections settings were one of the two most likely places to experience threats of harm. Rapp-Paglicci (2004) found that 69% of the probation officers that she studied were concerned about safety at least some of the time. Beaver (1999) found that, by far, social workers in the criminal justice field experienced higher rates of client violence, with a 53.3% rate, though the trend noted was not statistically significant. Similarly, psychological violence to social workers was found to be significantly more prevalent in corrections settings than most other settings in Ringstad’s (2005) national study of NASW members.

Institutional mental health settings may also be hazardous for social workers. In a national survey of social workers, 82% of those in psychiatric hospitals reported concerns

about personal safety on the job (NASW, 2006). A national probability study indicated that workers in a mental health setting experienced the largest number of physical threats, when compared to workers in 6 other practice settings (Jayarante et al., 1995). Similarly, Jayarante and other colleagues (2004) found institutional mental health settings to be one of the two most dangerous settings for social workers. In another national study, Ringstad (2005) found that workers in inpatient mental health settings experienced significantly more physical and psychological assaults. When all workers in a university psychiatric center were surveyed, 34% of the clinicians, including persons with an MSW or BSW, had been assaulted by patients (Privitera et al., 2005). In a study of injuries to staff in a large state psychiatric hospital, 70.7% of the injuries incurred to staff were head injuries, which is a significant occupational hazard (Carmel & Hunter, 1993).

School social workers may also be very vulnerable to client violence. In a national study, Jayarante and colleagues (1995) found that school social workers experienced the highest percentage of assaults and similarly, Jayarante, Croxton and Mattison (2004) found that 21% of school social workers had been physically threatened and 5% had actually been assaulted. School social workers may also experience significantly more psychological aggression, according to Ringstad's national study of NASW members (2005). A national random sample of school social workers found that many feared for their safety, especially if they worked at inner city schools (Astor et al., 1998).



### *Race /Ethnicity Match of Field Educator and Student*

Historically, social work and counseling literature on the effects of ethnicity on supervision process has been sparse and the literature that does exist tends to be more theoretical (Page, 2003). To date, there have been few empirical studies on the effects of cross-cultural supervision and the studies that have been done are plagued with a lack of comparison groups, small sample sizes of minority groups, and the use of inexperienced supervision dyads to measure the supervision relationship (Leong & Wagner, 1994). Specifically, there have been no studies on how the race/ethnicity match in a supervision dyad may impact exposure to client violence. Furthermore, there are no studies that indicate that the race of the field educator may impact a student's exposure to client violence. However, there are studies on how the students' perception of cross-cultural supervision may impact how the student receives and utilizes supervision (Cook & Helm, 1988; Hilton, Russell, & Salmi, 1995; Lewis & Gingerich, 1980; McRoy, Freeman, Logan, & Blackmon, 1986; Ramirez, 2003; VanderKolk, 1974).

*Cross cultural supervision.* The few empirical studies that have been done in the area of cross-cultural supervision shed some light on cross-cultural supervisory relationships, in spite of the studies' limitations and datedness. There have been some indications that non-White students may be suspicious of supervisors who are of a differing race/ethnicity. Cook and Helm (1988) studied 225 minority students in psychology graduate programs, 89% of whom had White supervisors. Thus, a very large majority of the students in this sample were in unmatched racial/ethnic supervision dyads. Blacks, Hispanics, and Native Americans felt significantly less liked by their

supervisors than did Asians. Native Americans were significantly more likely to feel that their supervisors had a high level of discomfort when relating to them. This was particularly significant in light of the study's finding that perceived supervisor liking explained almost 70% of the total variance in satisfaction with cross-cultural supervision.

Another study of 37 Native American graduate students and 40 non-Native American graduate students may further explain the Native American students' perceptions concerning their supervisors (Lewis & Gingerich, 1980). These researchers indicated that there were significant differences in the way that the two groups perceived leadership. The Native American students believed that leaders are more sacred, person-oriented, intuitive and honest. Seventy-six percent of the Native American students felt that characteristics of a person more defined them as a leader as opposed to the skills and knowledge they possessed. Conversely, the non-Native American students largely believed that skills and knowledge were the most important basis for choosing a leader. Since this study only compared leadership perceptions of Native American students and non-Native American students, it is possible that differential leadership perceptions may be unique to the Native American culture. However, it is also possible that some of these leadership perceptions may translate to other cultures. This study did not report on whether the students responded differently to leaders, depending upon their perceptions of the leader, but it is frequently the case that perceptions and beliefs influence actions (Fishbein & Ajzer, 1975). Thus, it is possible that when students do not perceive qualities of leadership in a supervisor, they may not be as accepting of the leaders' authority.

Other studies indicate that non-White supervisees may expect or experience a lack of understanding by supervisors from a culture other than their own. For example, Vander Kolk (1974) studied the relationship of race to anticipation of the supervisory relationship for counseling students. The 41 White students and 9 Black students were divided into two groups, depending on whether they expected the supervisory relationship to be facilitative. It was found that the Black students were significantly more likely than the White students to expect their supervisor to be less empathetic, less respectful, and less congruent. Yet another study included 323 professionals and paraprofessionals from 11 sites of the MHMR (no explanation of acronym in article) system in south Texas (Ramirez, 2003). At least 40% of the respondents in this study were in social work positions. Overall, the fluent Spanish speaking respondents were significantly more likely to believe that supervisors needed more training/education about Hispanics and less likely to believe that the supervisor promoted ethnic-sensitive practices. The Hispanic practitioners were significantly more likely to view supervisors as marginal on cultural competence.

One social work study looked at supervision of minority students to discover what potential problems can occur in cross-cultural supervision (McRoy et al., 1986). Overall, both the field instructors and the students identified far more problems with cross-cultural supervision than advantages. Both Hispanic and Black students felt that there could be problems with racism. Black students specifically mentioned that there could be problems with the power and authority of field educators in terms of grading. White students said that problems could develop from the field instructor's heavy accent, differing values and

inability to be honest and direct. Several of the Black field educators had experienced negative attitudes from White students when the students questioned their competence and were unwilling to accept supervision. Like Black field educators, Hispanic field educators also said that there can be problems associated with power and authority in cross-cultural supervision dyads. White field educators additionally perceived that there were numerous potential problems in cross-cultural supervisory relationships, including lack of empathy, lack of knowledge of cultural differences, prejudice, student defensiveness and failure to recognize student strengths. Of seven students who had experienced problems as a result of cross-cultural supervision, only two had discussed the problems with the field educator. Even when students perceived that field educators were knowledgeable and sensitive about cultural differences they still did not initiate conversation about any discomfort that they had.

An empirical article discussed the effects of supervisor race and level of support on perception of supervision (Hilton et al., 1995). The 60 undergraduate psychology supervisees that were recruited for the study were White. There were three Black supervisors and three White supervisors, each of whom supervised part of their supervisees in a low-support condition and an equal part of the supervisees in a high-support condition. The study found that supervisor race did not significantly affect the supervisee's ratings of support by the supervisor. However, the participants who experienced high levels of support from their supervisors evaluated the supervision more positively.

*Supervision functions in social work.* In his book about social work supervision, Kadushin (1976) delineated three functions for the social work supervision: administrative, educational, and supportive. For the administrative function, authority has normally been given to the supervisor by agency administration. This authority is “the sanctioned use of power” (p. 93). However, such authority must be endorsed by supervisees before it can be fully implemented. As Kadushin said, supervisees have the “ultimate veto power” (p. 106) concerning a supervisor’s authority.

The supervisory relationship can become filled with transference, ambivalence, and resistance as a result of earlier life experiences. Kadushin (1976) stated that when supervisor and supervisee are of different races, some historical societal racial tensions may affect the supervisory relationship. Fong and Lease (1997) concurred, stating that “a number of historic, cultural and role-related issues affect white supervisors’ attempts to provide cross-cultural supervision” (p. 389). These problems may include unintentional racism, unbalanced power dynamics, trust issues, and misunderstood verbal and nonverbal communication. Furthermore, the White supervisor may accept the White culture’s values as the standard, making minority supervisee’s actions and thoughts seem comparatively resistant and deviant.

Kadushin (1976) stated that the supportive function of social work supervisors is most essential because without support to deal with stresses, the student’s work may be seriously impaired. He said that “supportive supervision provides the psychological and interpersonal supplies that enable the worker to mobilize the emotional energy needed for job performance” (p. 200). Furthermore, it was stated that:

In implementing the objectives of supportive supervision the supervisor seeks to prevent the development of potentially stressful situations, removes the worker from stress, reduces stress impinging on the worker and helps her to adjust to stress. (p. 271)

*Integration of knowledge on cross-cultural supervision and supervision functions.*

Though literature is sparse, there are indications that cross-cultural supervision may present numerous potential problems, including feelings on the part of the supervisee that the supervisor may be uninformed, uncaring, and even racist or biased. These perceptions, real or imagined, may make it difficult for a student to respect the authority of the supervisor or to receive the necessary support needed to do the job. It may be difficult for the supervisee to even discuss issues in supervision. In the case of a social work student who believes that a given client situation may be dangerous or who has already been victimized by a client, a cross-cultural supervision relationship may inhibit the discussion of such concerns. If there is a failure to appropriately supervise a student or if there is a failure of a student to appropriately utilize supervision, it is possible that high stress client situations may not make it to the supervision dialogue and opportunities may be lost to protect the student. Admittedly, no empirical studies support such a claim, but the connections that can be made in the literature warrant a closer look at this possibility.

*Training on Safety and Client Violence*

Social work client violence studies have found that time spent in safety training may be limited. Newhill (1996) reported in her sample of over 1000 social workers that only 4% recalled receiving training in their MSW or BSW program and 3% recalled receiving training at their field internship site. Most of the 59% of those who had safety

training had received it at their workplace. A majority (79%) said that they needed more training. Similarly, a national study of school social workers looked at where workers received safety training, and found that only 5% had received training as a part of their graduate or undergraduate social work studies (Astor et al., 1998). Sixty two percent had received training in the form of in-service training from the school district and 70% had gotten training at conferences. In spite of the fact that many had received training, 59% reported a need for immediate training focused on school violence. Both of these studies included many social workers who had been in practice for a substantial period of time and they relied on recall of their schooling to inform their responses.

Rey (1996) reported that of the 175 social workers studied, 41% had completed training on clinical predictors of violence and only 2% had training on violence prevention. Only 22% had training on safety issues during home visits. A little more than half were aware of their agency's safety policies.

#### *Training –Student Perceptions*

School social work studies that contain information about safety training are largely written from two perspectives. The first perspective is of those who primarily receive training, the student, and second is that of those who may be responsible for providing the training- field directors, field educators and field agencies. From the student perspective, Knight's (1999) study of 110 BSW students in one social work program included a survey pre-field and post-field. In the pre-field survey 68% of the students projected that participating in training on how to verbally diffuse a potentially threatening situation would help to reduce any anxiety about their personal safety in their

field placement. Also, 56.2% of the students felt that training in self defense would help and 42.6% thought that training in assertiveness would help. In the post-field survey, less than 50% of the students had any training in the three subjects. About one half or more of those who had training on how to verbally deescalate a situation felt that the strategy had effectively reduced their anxiety. One third of the students who had self defense training felt that the training reduced their anxiety.

*Training in social work program venues.* In one of the few studies including MSW students, data from 36 MSW students in California found that over 90% of the students said that they felt their social work program had either not prepared them at all or only somewhat prepared them to handle situations where they might feel concerned about their personal safety (Schwarzmueller, 1998). Tulley and colleagues (1993) received responses from 121 BSW and MSW students, slightly over half of whom reported that they had received safety training in the social work curriculum. Most of them had received the training in practice classes. Another study indicated that 78% of the 37 BSW students from one program said that that the social work program had offered the most information about violence in the field (Mama, 2001). These students were not asked to differentiate where in the program they received the training. Elwood and Rey (1996) found that only 17.9% of the social workers had academic training on predictors of violence, whereas 41% had classroom training on violence prevention and 43% had learned about threats toward students in social work classes.

Two social work studies from the student perspective suggest that there is a deficit of safety training in field agencies. Mama (2001) reported that 32% of BSW



students surveyed said that they had received training on how to handle dangerous situations at the field agency. Similarly, Elwood and Rey (1996) indicated that almost 35% of the social workers in their study received agency training about predicting violence and even less (18%) had received agency training about safety on home visits. Data indicated that overall the students had more training in social work classes than practicum agencies.

*Field agency safety policies.* Only two studies have asked students about their knowledge of field agency safety policies. Mama (2001) reported that 51% of the 37 students surveyed stated that their field placement agencies had a policy regarding service to dangerous clients. Similarly, almost half (48.7%) of the 78 social work students in Elwood and Rey's 1996 study were aware of agency safety policies.

*Training content areas.* The only study to ask for student reports of the content of safety training they had received was Elwood and Rey's (1996) study of 60 medical students and 78 social work students from University of Nevada. They included questions about the students' training on safety and violence by asking about various content areas of training on client violence. The questions about content areas were divided into content areas received as a part of formal education and content areas received as a result of training in hospitals, clinics, and placement agencies. Eleven of the formal education content areas were related more to circumstances where violence may occur. For instance, questions were asked as to whether students had received training on suicide, child abuse, domestic violence, and homicide. Three questions were related to training students had received to recognize and/or prevent violence. Specifically the three content

areas were predictors of violence, violence prevention, and threat toward students. Seven questions were asked about training in the field agency. While these content areas were generally more oriented towards recognition and/or prevention of violence they included control by medication and use of safety equipment, which may not be relevant in every social work setting. The social work students in the study had more safety training than medical students and the social worker students encountered less violence than the medical students. Additionally, the type of training may have affected exposure to violence. For example, medical students' academic preparation in the area of violence frequently included training on suicide, post traumatic stress disorder, child abuse, and managing violence with the use of medication. In contrast, more social work students had training on clinical predictors of patient violence and de-escalation techniques. This has been the only article to attempt to relate numerous content areas of safety training to a reduction in incidents of client violence and as such, it has strong merit.

#### *Training- Field Director and Field Educator Perspective*

*Student training.* Ellison (1996) reported that 61% ( $n = 89$ ) of the field directors at 147 social work schools said that they had safety and violence training for students. The median length of time for students to receive training on safety issues was two hours. In contrast, Reeser and Wertkin (2001) found that of 258 social work programs only 38% offered some type of safety training to students. The majority (69%) of those mandated student safety training. Of those programs that offered training, only 37% felt that their training was adequate. Seventy seven percent of the field directors felt that safety content should be integrated across the curriculum. In a more recent study, Faria and Kendra

(2007) found that 68% of the 19 social work schools taught safety education in their undergraduate curriculum. The six schools that did not teach safety content in their curriculum commented on why they did not. Some of the comments included not having enough room to put it in the curriculum and one school replied, “I have never heard anyone mention it” (p.146). A major issue with the Faria and Kendra study was there was only a 10% response rate, so it was not possible to generalize the results to all social work programs.

Ellison (1996) generally reported training content areas covered in the 147 social work programs, but it is unknown what percentage of programs focused on each content area. The top five training components in social work training programs were: assessing situations for potential danger, how to work with difficult clients, identifying escape routes, de-escalating volatile situations, and assessing when to have a co-worker present. Reeser and Wertkin (2001) asked field directors specifically if they offered safety training in particular content areas. The majority said that they offered training in awareness of danger (93%), assessing situations for danger (86%), and de-escalation of potentially threatening situations (73%). About one quarter (28%) offered self defense skills. Faria and Kendra (2007) reported in detail about the safety content covered by BSW programs. They listed 31 content areas and asked if the programs had offered training in those areas. Ninety percent ( $n = 12$ ) of the programs that taught safety content in the curriculum said that they included content on the following 9 topics: characteristics of high risk situations, creating safe office spaces, high- risk practice settings, maintaining a confident, secure demeanor; verbal de-escalation of a client’s rage; how to

behave with an angry client; how to dress; and how to sit when interacting with a client. Fifty four percent ( $n = 7$ ) said that they covered 75% or more of the 31 content areas.

Two studies of social work programs have addressed where field training is received. Faria and Kendra (2007) reported that of the 13 BSW programs that taught safety in the curriculum, 92% included it in the upper division courses. Specifically, 69% ( $n = 9$ ) taught safety content in practice courses and 54% ( $n = 7$ ) taught it in both practice classes and field seminar. Reeser and Wertkin (2001) found that 50% of safety training was incorporated into social work practice classes, whereas 17% of programs offered safety training as a special workshop. Other programs offered a combination of the two.

Social work schools may rely on field agencies to train on students' safety concerns. Reeser and Wertkin (2001) reported that 96% of 258 program respondents felt that the field instructor had the primary responsibility for discussing safety issues with student, yet field directors were unaware if training was being done in the agencies. Many programs were unable to estimate how many of their field agencies were offering safety training. Faria and Kendra (2007) similarly found that those programs that did not teach safety education in the curriculum relied on field agencies to do safety training with the students, yet of the 19 schools, only one program said that safety was taught in all of its field agency sites and four others said that it was taught in most of their sites. Seven (37%) said that they didn't know if safety was taught in the field agencies.

*Field educator training.* Field educators have reported a need for more training on client violence. Tulley and colleagues (1993) found that 94% of the field educators indicated that they had a need for more education on the issue of violence. Mama (2001)

reported that of 17 field educators surveyed 59% said that their agency didn't have sufficient staff training for workplace violence or safety and Ellison (1996) found that only 30% ( $n = 45$ ) of social work programs offered safety training to field educators. Additionally, the time spent in training was relatively brief. Social work programs reported exposing field educators and field liaisons to a median of 45 minutes of safety training.

*Social work program policies.* Three studies surveyed social work programs to ask about social work program safety policies. Ellison (1996) reported that of 147 programs, 38(26%) had some type of safety policy. Reeser and Wertkin (2001) found that of 258 social work programs only 12% ( $n = 31$ ) had a formal written policy to address client violence. MSW programs were significantly more likely to have written policies than BSW programs. Additionally, the programs in which a student had experienced assault and/or threat were more likely to have formal policies. An additional 41% of the programs had informal policies (unwritten policies that had not been formalized), though a large amount of those stated that the informal policy consisted of relying on safety training in field seminar, student orientations, and social work practice classes. A few of the programs stated that they did not intend to develop policies because they thought this was the responsibility of the field agency. Faria and Kendra (2007) found that 21% ( $n = 4$ ) of the BSW social work programs that responded to their survey had written safety policies. Forty two percent ( $n = 8$ ) had no policies and 32% ( $n = 6$ ) did not know if they had policies.

*Field agency safety policies.* Studies conflict over the number of field practicum agencies that have safety policies, partially depending on who is asked. When field educators are asked, answers are varied. Tulley and colleagues (1993) received surveys from 96 field educators who were affiliated with the University of Georgia and found that two thirds of the field educators stated that their agencies had safety policies though less than half of them actually knew the policies. In contrast, Mama (2001) found in her survey of 17 field educators that 17% ( $n = 3$ ) had an agency policy on providing services to clients in potentially dangerous areas and 41% ( $n = 7$ ) said that their agencies had adopted policies on providing services to dangerous clients.

Only one study reported surveying field agencies directly about field agency safety policies. Lyter and Martin ( as cited in Lyter & Abbott, 2007) found in the year 2000 that of 200 field agencies in one geographic region on the East Coast, only 18% reported that they had a formal written agency safety policy. Since this study was reported within another study, nothing is known about the methodology, nor to whom was the safety survey addressed.

*Summary on training.* In spite of numerous recommendations to implement safety training for students, only one study with a small sample of social work students found a possible relationship between training and reduction of incidents of client violence (Elwood & Rey, 1996). Even in this study, no statistical significance is mentioned between having more training or training on specific content and having less incidents of violence. One additional study (Schat & Kelloway, 2003) addressed the possibility of training reducing the effects of workplace violence. While the inclusion of

training may be helpful in reducing incidents and effects of client violence towards social work students, its effectiveness needs to be further evaluated.

Additionally, field directors and program directors may believe that their programs have offered more safety training than students recall receiving. More information is needed to understand more about the student perspective of how much safety training is received and where it is received. Finally, it would be helpful to know more about the content areas where students have received training in order to assist social work programs in designing effective training on safety and violence.

### *Effects of Violence on Social Workers*

#### *Short Term Effects of Violence on Social Workers*

Researchers indicate that social workers are affected in various ways when they have been victimized. Newhill (1995) presented three case vignettes in an article summarizing findings on client violence toward social workers. In all three cases, the social workers were highly skilled MSWs who had been harmed by client violence. It was reported that the typical immediate response to the violence was a “numb feeling of unreality” (p. 636). The numbness later turned into a realization that it was possible that they could be mortally harmed while doing social work. When the social workers began to realize that they had been subjected to life threatening harm, they developed feelings of helplessness and demoralization.

Jayarante and colleagues (1995) reported that workers who had experienced verbal abuse, physical threats, threats of lawsuits, or sexual harassment reported significantly higher levels of depression. Additionally, the victimized workers were

significantly more likely to depersonalize their clients. Newhill and Wexler (1997) found that 23% of those who had property damage were sad or depressed, but less social workers were depressed when they were threatened (14%) or actually attacked (5%).

Newhill and Wexler (1997) found that many social workers experienced strong emotional reactions immediately following the client violence incident. The reactions varied with the type of violence. When workers experienced property damage, 63% reported anger as their most prevalent immediate emotion. Social workers were also angry when threatened (48%) or actually attacked (43%), though the feeling wasn't as prevalent. When workers were actually attacked, they were much more likely to experience feelings of helplessness and inadequacy, being drained or emotionally exhausted, and shocked, surprised, or shaken-up.

In Newhill and Wexler's study, 69% of child and youth workers who had been threatened were scared or fearful and 62% were anxious. This coincides with Jayarante and colleagues (1995) finding that social workers who were victims of client violence were more likely to be anxious and irritable. Interestingly, in Newhill and Wexler's study, a smaller percentage of those who were actually attacked reported feeling scared (39%) or fearful (43%). These findings resonate with those of Rapp-Paglicci (2004), who found that probation officers who had been personally victimized had less concern about their safety than those who had not been victimized.

To compound these initial reactions to trauma, Schultz (1989) points out that it is often assumed that social workers who have experienced this trauma will be able to effectively cognitively manage the burnout and stress. In Schultz's study, 83 social



workers reported that neither staff networking nor peer review of violent experiences was available to aid in resolving the effects of the trauma. Social workers who experience client violence may feel that they should have been able to predict the assault and that the attack could have been avoided (Guy, Brown & Poelstra, 1991). Guy and Brady (1998) state that this increases feelings of guilt, shame, and sense of failure in the worker, which can be particularly difficult for students:

When combined with the emotional turmoil inherent in being a graduate student, such as financial hardship, academic pressures, fear of the unknown, and loss of a prior support network, the emotional impact of patient attack on the well being of the trainee may be completely overwhelming and debilitating. (p. 405)

#### *Long Term Effects of Violence on Social Workers*

When short term effects of violence are not adequately addressed, some social workers may proceed towards longer term trauma effects. Snow's 1994 study found that 75% of the child welfare workers she interviewed met criteria in three categories of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder: re-experiencing the trauma, avoidance or numbing of responsiveness, and increased arousal. Social workers may also suffer negative effects on their health when trauma symptoms have not been addressed. Balloch and colleagues (1998) did the only longitudinal study on client violence and found that even two years after an incident of client violence, social workers had significantly higher scores on the General Health Questionnaire (a scale that detects minor psychiatric disorders in the general population) than home care workers or residential workers.

When social workers have been physically assaulted, they often react instinctively with self protective responses that can include aggression toward the client. When this

has occurred, they may worry for a long period of time about eventual litigation or malpractice claims by the client (Guy and Brady, 1998).

Littlechild's (2005) qualitative study reported that a core issue in terms of longer term effects and severity of effects is whether the social worker is personally threatened. Several people in this study had experienced personal threats of clients saying that they would 'get even' or kill them or their families. Such veiled or blatant threats contributed to workers having increased fear of personal violence. In fact, Littlechild found that almost half of participants experienced anxiety, frequently mixed with anger and fear, both during the client violence and when they later thought about the situations. This finding was echoed in another qualitative study by Smith and Nursten (1998) in the comments of female participant about a male client: "He said he was going to get me, beat me up, follow me home...I would be sorry...the threats were against me, not against the department" (p. 357).

Norris (1990) found that respondents tended to be more cautious in practice after experiencing violence. They had less ability to confront clients. Some felt that violence had reduced their skills and they felt less able to help other clients. Additionally, there was a tendency to retreat to more administrative positions in order to avoid direct client contact. Some felt that they might decide not to visit some clients alone and they might refuse to work certain shifts alone.

An additional long term effect is the tendency for social workers who have been victimized by clients to contemplate leaving the field of social work. Lyons, Lavalley, and Grimwood (1995) stated that one of the primary reasons practitioners leave the profession

is the threat of or experience with violence. Of the social workers who suffered abuse or threat, 24.6% had left the profession of social work and 12% were contemplating leaving the field. Similarly, Newhill and Wexler (1997) found that 19% of their sample of child and youth social workers who had experienced violence reported not wanting to return to work. One practitioner stated that:

It has reinforced my belief that the profession does not take the threat of violence seriously, and I have found that many people feel uncomfortable admitting fear or lack of control. It adds to other reasons to leave social work. (p.207)

It is possible that social workers contemplate leaving the profession because experiencing violence is an assault to their professional competence. Bibby (1994) found that social workers have an unrealistic view that they should have been able to stop the violence.

#### *Effects of Violence on Social Work Students*

It has been found that students who are physically assaulted state that they would be uncomfortable engaging in all practice activities (Knight, 1999). Furthermore, one half of all of the students questioned felt that social work was a dangerous profession. Almost two thirds of the students thought they might be in private practice at some point. Two thirds also stated that personal safety needs would play some role in their career decisions.

In contrast, an early study of students exposed to violence indicated that at times, they began to view the environment as less threatening than it really was (Mayer & Rosenblatt, 1979). They believed that the school of social work would not send them to a neighborhood that was truly dangerous.

### *Fear of Future Client Violence*

When workers have experienced workplace violence, they have a tendency to fear returning to the site (Waters, Lynn, and Morgan, 2002). Guy and Brady (1998) reported that fear of future victimization is the most frequently reported emotional consequence for psychotherapists who were victims of physical attack. Budd, Arvey, and Lawless (1996) stated that experiencing violence is associated with a significantly higher likelihood of worrying about violence. In Snow's (1994) qualitative study of child welfare workers, 90% reported that they felt fearful of imminent physical danger at work. Atkinson (1991) likewise found in a qualitative study of 8 clinical workers that they tended to have fear and anxiety about being in situations that were reminiscent of the assault. These fears were predominantly contained in the workplace and they generally did not discuss them at home. They largely looked for support from their colleagues as administrative support was almost non-existent. Some commented that agency and system influences made the effects of the assault less personally frightening. Making sense of the assaults helped to ameliorate the negative effects from the assault.

Rogers and Kelloway (1997) found supportive evidence that fear of future violence mediated the relationship between exposure to workplace violence and negative outcomes such as psychological well being, somatic complaints, and intent to leave the organization. Using a sample of in-home service workers, Barling, Rogers, and Kelloway (2001) found that having an experience with workplace violence caused a fear of a recurrence of violence in the workplace. Fear of future violence then predicted lower organizational commitment and increased withdrawal intentions. A national study of 296

children and family social workers echoed this finding. Song (2005) found that fear of future victimization fully mediated the relationship between client violence and burnout and the relationship between client violence and affective organizational commitment. In other words, experiences with client violence directly and significantly increased fear of future violence. Fear, in turn, was the factor that directly and significantly increased burnout and decreased affective organizational commitment. Fear did not significantly predict career turnover intentions. These two studies looked at the effect of fear on organizational commitment and career turnover intentions rather than on occupational commitment, but they provide support for the idea that fear may be a result of client violence and this fear may have negative effects on social workers.

#### *Compromised Occupational Commitment*

When a social work practitioner or student has been exposed to client violence, it is possible that their commitment to the profession of social work may be compromised. Prior to the early 1990's, the terms occupation, profession, and career were used interchangeably in the literature. Blau, Paul, and St. John (1993) suggested that a tighter work referent, such as occupation, be used in future research after they found that some responses to items referring to career were related to some organizational commitment facets as opposed to occupational commitment facets. Lee, Carswell, and Allen (2000) defined occupation as "an identifiable and specific line of work that an individual engages in to earn a living at a given point in time. It is made up of a constellation of requisite skills, knowledge and duties that differentiate it from other occupations and typically, is transferable across settings" (p.800). Earliest references to occupational

commitment actually involved research of career commitment. Hall (1971) defined career commitment as “the strength of one’s motivation to work in a career field” (p. 59) and Blau (1988) defined it as “one’s attitude toward one’s vocation, including a profession.”(p. 295). It has also been defined as “a person’s belief in and acceptance of values of his or her chosen occupation or line of work and willingness to maintain membership in that occupation” (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994, p. 535).

*Correlates of occupational commitment.* Lee, Carswell, and Allen (2000) completed a meta-analytic review of occupational commitment, aggregating correlations of variables in 76 studies on the subject. They found that demographic variables did not correlate with occupational commitment. Additionally, occupational commitment was positively associated with work related attitudes such as job involvement, job satisfaction, satisfaction with work itself, coworker satisfaction, pay satisfaction, work ethic endorsement, and career satisfaction. Negative correlations included burnout, reduced accomplishment, and depersonalization. Additionally, job stress showed a moderate negative correlation with occupational commitment. Occupational commitment was most strongly and positively related to occupational turnover intention. Based on the observations in the metanalysis, Lee and colleagues felt that maintaining occupational commitment might depend on job design variables, as reaction of respondents to the job greatly affected occupational commitment.

In a sample of 237 nurses in Western Canada, it was found that career (occupational) commitment was negatively correlated with job tensions (Cohen, A., 1999). Job tensions were measured using a scale that measured tensions and pressures

growing out of job requirements. This is an indication that as job tensions increase, as can happen with experiences such as client aggression, career commitment decreases.

Turnover intentions have been found to be negatively correlated to all forms of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al, 1993). Brierly (1996) found a significant negative correlation between professional commitment and professional turnover intentions. Blau (1988) found almost the same correlation between career commitment and career turnover intentions.

*Occupational commitment in social workers.* Landsman (2001) studied occupational commitment in 990 public child welfare workers in the Missouri Department of Social Services. He found that both job satisfaction and occupational commitment were significantly and positively associated with intent to stay in the occupation. Additionally, having a degree in social work was positively and significantly related to occupational commitment, indicating that professional preparation in the social work profession may increase the probability of a worker having stronger commitment to the profession. Landsman used Structural Equation Modeling with this large sample and established good evidence of causal ordering in the areas mentioned.

Gifford (2003) questioned 207 social service employees in three multi-service social service organizations in a suburban community in New York State about organizational and professional (occupational) commitment. It was found that professional commitment was positively related to having an administrative position in the organization. It was also found that workers in public agencies had less professional commitment than workers in non-profit agencies and proprietary agencies. Gifford

speculated that line staff social service workers have less commitment to the profession since they have less responsibility and less flexibility with decision making. This study did not differentiate between persons with professional training, such as social workers, and other social service workers who do not have professional training, so it is unknown how professional training influences professional commitment in this study.

With his sample of 179 professional social workers in Israel, one researcher looked at the willingness of the social worker to seek help, along with gender, education, religiosity, seniority in social work, and ethnicity as possible predictors of professional commitment (Cohen, B. 1999). He found that willingness to seek help was the most powerful predictor of professional commitment. This finding possibly relates to the present study since social workers who have been harmed by client violence may maintain their professional commitment to the extent that they are willing to seek help when an incident has occurred.

An additional study of organizational and career (occupational) commitment was done by a lecturer from the social work school at University of Haifa in Israel (Freund, 2005). The sample included 220 employees in welfare organizations providing community service. He found that career commitment was significantly related to intention to leave. Additionally, he found job satisfaction to be the most meaningful factor influencing withdrawal intentions. The respondents in this study largely occupied executive positions. Two thirds were males and at least half had graduate degrees. It is unknown how many, if any, were professionally trained social workers.



*Occupational commitment in students.* Occupational commitment in social work students has been measured in only one study. Professional (occupational) commitment in social work students was studied by researchers in Israel, utilizing data collected from 227 senior BSW students at 5 Israeli universities (Lazar, Cohen, and Guttman, 1995). These researchers used Allen and Meyer's (1990) organizational commitment scale, changing the wording to reflect commitment to the profession of social work. The strongest predictor of professional commitment was the variable that measured how likely it was that the students would stay in their profession. Researchers speculated that those students who stated that they would not change their profession were likely to be satisfied with their jobs and believed that social work jobs would continue to offer challenges and opportunities for advancement.

Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) examined career commitment in 355 student nurses in Ontario. They used their own scale to measure occupational commitment on three subscales: affective, normative, and continuance commitment. They found that affective commitment and normative commitment were related to positive experiences, such as satisfaction with the job or training experience. They speculated that positive experiences could lead to affective attachment to the profession and a sense of obligation to the profession. Inversely, it might be expected that negative experiences might lead to less affective and normative career commitment. Additionally, both affective commitment and normative commitment were positively and significantly related to intent to stay in the career. Continuance commitment correlated negatively with intention to establish a long term career. It was also related to variables that reflect an increased

investment made by the student, such as year in the nursing program, years in nursing, and employment status. Thus, the researchers observed that by the end of the nursing program, students may be staying in the profession more because of the time, money, and energy they have put into the program (continuance commitment), and less because of desire (affective commitment) and obligation (normative commitment). In this study measures were taken at two points in time during the nursing program- the first, after 2 weeks of school and the second, near the last week of class in March. It is of interest to note that both affective and normative commitment declined as students progressed through their program.

Career commitment was examined in 92 nurses in their first year of training in England (Arnold, 1990). A series of multiple regression analyses were performed in order to establish the most effective predictors of career commitment at Day 1, 4 months, and 1 year. On Day 1, commitment was higher when the decision to enter the nursing field was perceived to be an important decision that had been publicly discussed with people close to them. At one year, experiences during nursing training predicted career commitment. The more negative the experience, the lower the commitment to the career of nursing. Also, unmet expectations during the fourth through twelfth months predicted career commitment, but only if those expectations had constituted reasons to enter the profession of nursing. Overall, the mean level of career commitment was higher during the first four months of training, but dropped slightly between four months and a year.

In the three student studies, negative experiences in their academic setting and negative experiences in the practicum setting were noted to lessen career commitment.

Conversely, positive experiences in the practicum or training settings led to stronger career commitment.

*Measurement of occupational commitment.* In 1993, Meyer, Allen, and Smith created a new three component Occupational Commitment Scale, based on their previous work with an organizational commitment scale. In Allen and Meyer's (1990) review of organizational commitment literature, they found evidence of three distinct themes. They called these affective commitment, which involves an employee's decision to stay because he/she wants to stay; normative commitment, which involves a decision to stay because they feel obligated to do so; and continuance commitment, which involves a decision to stay because they need to do so. Meyer and Allen believed that one could better understand a person's commitment to an organization if the three areas are differentiated. Factor analysis has indicated that the three areas of commitment are distinct concepts.

The concepts of affective, normative, and continuance commitment were first used to measure occupational commitment in 1993, using modified versions of the organizational commitment scales. They demonstrated good discriminant validity and acceptable reliability scores. These scales have been demonstrated as effective with professional students. A modified version of the original organizational commitment scale has also been used with social work students in Israel (Lazar, et al. 1995).

#### *Career Withdrawal Intentions*

*Evolution of the variable.* A literature review on employment turnover stated that the earliest studies of employment turnover appeared in the early 1970's and

predominantly used single explanatory variables that did little to help understand the turnover process (Mobley, Griffith, Hand, and Meglino, 1979). These researchers stated that a linking mechanism was needed that took into account an individual's perception and evaluation of the individual's alternatives to the present work position. They proposed a complex model of employment turnover and stated that the best predictor of turnover was the intention to quit. Turnover intentions have alternately been referred to as withdrawal cognitions, which Mobley and colleagues defined as the extent to which an individual has thought about quitting his or her job.

Blau (1985) was one of the first to differentiate between organizational withdrawal cognitions and career withdrawal cognitions. He theorized that career withdrawal cognitions would be different than organizational withdrawal cognitions and that the hypothesized relationships with career commitment and organizational commitment would help to justify the conceptualization of career commitment. His study of 119 registered nurses indicated that career withdrawal cognitions are different than organizational withdrawal cognitions. Career withdrawal cognitions were significantly negatively correlated with career commitment, indicating that the stronger a person's career commitment, the less they will be likely to think about changing careers.

*Career withdrawal intentions in other fields.* In their study of 244 nursing professionals, Bedeian, Kemery, and Pizzolatto (1991) found that turnover (withdrawal) intentions had a direct effect on turnover. This was verified by obtaining hospital personnel records of the nurses 6 months after they completed their questionnaires and recording whether the nurse had actually left the position. Additionally, career

commitment interacted with expected utility of present job (feeling that the job would lead to future attainment of career goals) to predict turnover intentions. Neither career commitment nor career growth opportunities were directly related to turnover when turnover intentions were held constant. This model begins to look at possible effect of a mediator (turnover intentions) and a moderator (career commitment) in determining turnover.

*Career withdrawal intentions and career stages.* Career stage research assumes that individuals move through distinct occupational stages. Super's (1957) theory was that careers progress through four stages: 1) trial 2) stabilization; 3) maintenance; and 4) decline. In the trial stage, individuals are identifying interests, strengths, and abilities. They assume an apprentice role, learning from supervisor and coworkers. In this stage, individuals achieve a sense of mastery. Aryee, Chay, and Chew (1994) measured the effect of job characteristics on career commitment across career stages and found a positive correlation with career commitment across all career stages. Hierarchical regression indicated that organizational commitment was the most significant predictor of career commitment, accounting for 16% of the variance. While being in the maintenance stage of the career was a significant predictor of career commitment, it only accounted for 3% of the variance. Correlations in the same study indicate that career commitment negatively and significantly relates to career withdrawal intentions across all career stages. This is significant to the study of career commitment and career turnover intentions in social work students, as it indicates that social work students who are

presumed to be in the trial phase of their career may be as likely to change their careers as social workers who have been in the field for a longer period.

*Career withdrawal intention in social work.* One of the few studies to address career withdrawal intentions in social work was a national study of 923 direct care providers and supervisors who were providing psychosocial rehabilitation in community mental health centers (Blankertz & Robinson, 1997). There was no mention of types of professionals represented in this study, so it is unknown if any were professionally trained social workers. This study found that younger workers and those with bachelors or master's degrees were more likely to have intent to leave the field. Additionally, supervisors were more likely to leave, as opposed to direct service providers. Finally, there was a positive significant correlation between intent to leave the field and the emotional exhaustion scale.

A study of 259 mental health workers in New York State was completed to determine the effect of organizational conditions on job satisfaction and intention to leave their job (Acker, 2004). Hierarchical multiple regressions were completed, entering demographic variables in the first stage and workplace variables (such as role conflict, role ambiguity, caseload, and type of work activities) were entered in the second stage. Twenty- seven percent of the variance was accounted by the workplace variables, indicating that organizational conditions are strong predictors for job satisfaction and intention to leave the organization.

A recent article measured school social workers' intent to stay in the field of school social work, using a single item measure of whether the 48 school social workers

had intent to stay or intent to leave school social work (Caselman & Brandt, 2007). Moderate effect sizes were found between intent to stay and collaboration with other school personnel and self-efficacy, indicating that school social workers who felt knowledgeable and qualified to do their jobs and those who interact with principals, teachers, and guidance counselors as part of a team are more likely to stay in the field.

*Measurement.* Career withdrawal intentions (or cognitions) have generally been measured using a three item scale that was initially devised to measure job withdrawal cognitions. The original scale was based on organizational withdrawal cognitions that immediately precede job turnover: 1) thoughts of quitting a job; 2) intention to search for a job; and 3) intention to quit a job (Mobley et al., 1978).

Blau (1985) first utilized these same items in a career withdrawal cognitions scale by changing the referent of “job” to “profession”. He reported internal consistency of .87 and .85 on two occasions 7 months apart. Test-retest reliability was .57. When he used the scale again with a population of field office personnel in an insurance company, the internal consistency reliability was .93 (Blau, 1988). He demonstrated discriminant validity of the scale when comparing it to the job withdrawal cognitions scale. Aryee, Chay, and Chew (1994) used the same scale with managerial and professional employees and the Cronbach’s alpha score was .91.

Blau, Tatum, and Ward-Cook (2003) provided supporting evidence for the discriminant validity of professional (career) withdrawal cognitions versus organizational withdrawal cognitions. They utilized a different research design that included using pre-test and post-test for each type of cognition. They looked at variables in an organization’s

culture (i.e. concern for employees) and variables in a professional culture (i.e. a sense of calling and expertise), surmising that there would be differences in the variables' relationships to professional withdrawal cognitions and occupational withdrawal cognitions. Again, they demonstrated that career withdrawal cognitions was a different construct than organizational withdrawal cognitions.

Though a handful of studies have addressed social workers' intention to leave their agency, only three have looked at career withdrawal intentions (or intent to leave the field). More study is needed on social workers' career withdrawal intentions and whether those intentions actually lead to a career (profession) change.

### *Summary*

Client violence towards social workers is an aversive subject that many prefer not to discuss. The literature on client violence includes studies with different definitions of violence and varied methodologies, so it is difficult to compare results of the studies. Many samples are too small to generalize findings. Other studies are from distinct geographic areas, also making it difficult to generalize findings to social workers across the U.S. Some studies have focused on social workers in particular practice settings. Of those, two have used national random samples. Six studies have been conducted with social workers from the field of child welfare/child protection. A total of four studies have looked at social workers at large in the United States using samples from the national membership of NASW.

There has been little research on client violence on social work students. Four studies have used samples of social work field directors and seven U.S. studies have used



student samples. Of those that have used student samples, all have had relatively small samples, with the largest sample size to date being 258. The student studies have also been regionalized studies, making it impossible to generalize the results of the studies. Additionally, the smaller sample sizes prohibit more complex statistical analysis. Only three of the studies report how students are affected by client violence.

When social work practitioners and students have encountered client violence, it is possible that they will fear future occurrences of violence. Two social work studies have specifically explored the relationships between violent incidents and trauma effects. Other qualitative and quantitative studies have discovered in their search for effects of client violence that social workers may have fear and anxiety concerning future contacts with clients. Only one social work study of child welfare workers has examined the mediating relationship of fear of future violence between exposure to violence and organizational commitment (Song, 2005). No student studies have specifically addressed fear of future violence.

For social work students fear of future violence could contribute to reduced occupational or professional commitment. Most studies on occupational commitment have been done in other fields such as organizational psychology. However, some social work studies indicated that having a social work degree, being in an administrative position, and working in a proprietary agency increase occupational commitment. Israeli social work studies found that having a willingness to seek help and being satisfied with one's job increases occupational commitment. Student studies in other professions have shown that negative experiences in the academic setting and in the practicum setting

lessen occupational commitment. The only social work student study on occupational commitment was done in Israel. It indicated that the strongest associations with occupational commitment were satisfaction with career studies, determination not to change professions, and having an intention to work in social work. No social work study has specifically looked at the effect of client violence on occupational commitment.

Studies indicated that when occupational commitment is lessened, a person may begin to have career withdrawal intentions, or thoughts of leaving the occupation. Though this has been studied in other fields, it has been almost untouched by social work researchers. Only two studies discussed intentions of leaving the field of practice. Both surveyed groups of workers that likely included social workers, but it was unclear if any of the workers from either study were professionally trained social workers. One other study with a small sample size asked specifically about school social workers' intent to stay in the field of school social work. No studies have focused on career withdrawal intentions of social work students.

Figure 1 (Appendix A) illustrates a model for the current study. It is particularly important to understand what factors may help to predict client violence in social work students, so that we may help students to avoid violent encounters altogether. Additionally, there is a need to understand what kinds of training and venues of training may help to reduce violence toward social work students. Finally, we need to understand how students are affected when they have encountered violence. Specifically, might their commitment to the profession of social work be shaken? Might they be lost to the profession of social work? It is the intent of this study to seek answers to these questions.

As stated in a report on recent national study of social workers, “a profession cannot successfully retain its workforce when issues of personal safety go unaddressed” (NASW, 2006a, p. 35). It is hoped that the findings of this study will ultimately contribute to the health and safety of social work students and that it will aid in retaining these newcomers in the profession of social work.

## Chapter III

### Methodology

#### *Research Design and Methods*

This research was a descriptive, nonexperimental, cross-sectional study. The primary purpose was to explore the prevalence of client violence toward social work students. The relationship between certain demographic characteristics and experience with violence was explored, as well whether these demographic characteristics may predict client violence. Additionally, the study examined whether fear of future violence mediates the relationship between exposure to violence and career commitment and career withdrawal cognition. The study was a nonmanipulative design, in that it examined naturally occurring variables, which were not be controlled by the researcher.

Expedited approval (IRB#: 106461) to proceed with the study was received on December 19, 2007 from University of South Florida, Office of Research's Division of Research Integrity and Compliance (Appendix B). Initial study approval dates were December 18, 2007 through December 16, 2008. On November 25, 2008, the Institutional Review Board extended the approval date to November 24, 2009.

#### *Study Sample*

The sample for this study was drawn from an accessible population consisting of the 2008 National Membership Directory of the National Association of Social Workers (NASW). As the largest membership organization of professional social workers in the

United States, NASW had approximately 138,000 members, as of June, 2007. Rental of NASW membership direct mailing list was secured from in Focus Association of Marketing Experts, a company designated by NASW to assist with research needs (Appendix C).

A conservative expectation of response rate was 30%, based on a review of social work education studies utilizing national NASW student membership as a sampling frame. This researcher reviewed methodologies of all articles published in two major social work education journals in the past six years. A total of five studies used the national NASW membership as a sampling frame for a mailed survey. The response rates for the mailed surveys were predominantly between 24%-36%, with one group of BSW students having a 54% response rate.

In order to determine an adequate sample size, prospective power analysis information was used, according to the directions of previous researchers (Green, 1991; Nakagawa & Foster, 2004). In factoring together statistical power of .80, alpha of .05 and a medium effect size, Green suggests sample sizes, based on a rule of thumb. In the present study, the most predictor variables that were used at a time for any multiple regression analysis was 18. According to Green, when the number of predictors is 18, the recommended sample size for a medium effect size is approximately 149.

In order to insure an adequate number for analysis, a random sample of 1500 was requested. This number was predicted to yield approximately 450 responses, presuming a 30% return rate. This number was well above the recommended sample size, even if there was a lower response rate.

The sample was identified and selected by a computerized procedure from approximately 6,554 BSW student members and 13,579 MSW student members of NASW. The sample was stratified evenly between MSW and BSW members in order to insure equal numbers of graduate and undergraduate students in the study, thus the mailing list consisted of 750 BSW students and 750 MSW students.

An attempt was made to oversample various ethnic and racial groups because ethnic and racial groups have been underrepresented in most social work client violence studies. In social work student client violence studies, only Knight (1996, 1999) has given any information about racial/ethnic groups. Only in the latter study did the researcher analyze effects of race/ethnicity on experience of client violence. Normally, the skewed distribution of White social workers over other ethnicities would lead to a skewed distribution in the study sample. The small numbers of persons from minority ethnic and racial groups make it difficult to draw conclusions about the experience of minority social work students with exposure to violence.

From the study sampling frame, 8.98% ( $n = 12,386$ ) of approximately 138,000 members of NASW identified themselves with an ethnic group other than White. It was surmised that a similar percentage of students would report minority. This is significantly less than the 35.6% of BSW students and 34.4% of MSW students who are reported to be in social work programs in the U.S. (CSWE, 2006). In order to increase the possibility of having the number of respondents from non-White groups closer to the percentage actually in programs, a request was given to in Focus to draw 33% of the MSW students and 33% of the BSW students from minority groups. In the request, percentages of

specific ethnic groups were requested in the same proportion that they were represented in the larger sampling frame. For example, African Americans made up 50% of the minority ethnic membership of NASW, so it was requested that 50% of the 33% of ethnic minorities drawn for the current study be African American. In response, In Focus replied that only 231 BSW students had listed their ethnicity: 164 African Americans, 17 Asian/Pacific Islanders, 25 Chicanos/Mexicans, 17 Native Americans, and 8 Puerto Ricans. All of these were drawn for the sample and an additional 519 White students made up the BSW population. In contrast, 7009 of the MSW students had identified race, so it was possible to randomly draw the 33% requested ( $n = 250$ ) with the remaining two thirds of the MSW student sample being White. Once the sample was drawn, in Focus emailed the names and addresses of all in the sample and it was possible to proceed with data collection.

### *Data Collection*

Data were collected through an 82 item paper and pencil self-administered questionnaire (See Appendix D). The questionnaire appeared on pages divided into two columns, making the instrument five pages long. It was developed using strategies of the Tailored Design Method (Dillman, 2000). Additionally, several of the mail procedures suggested by Dillman were used in an attempt to increase the response rate. Both the initial and follow up cover letters were printed on University of South Florida letterhead (See Appendix E & F). The cover letters were personally signed in blue ink. The cover letter from the researcher, questionnaire, and stamped business reply envelope were

folded together. The envelopes containing the research materials were individually stamped with a 58 cent stamp and sent by regular mail.

Dillman (2000) recommends using a four contact process, plus a final contact by phone in order to improve response rates. In this study, the phone call was not possible because phone numbers of the students were not accessible. Also, a decision was made to make three contacts instead of four due to cost considerations.

A pre-survey contact was made via an announcement postcard, which was mailed on March 11, 2008, approximately one week before the first survey instrument was mailed (See Appendix G). This post-card notified the social work students that they had been randomly selected to participate in a national study of client violence against social work students. The students were thanked in advance for their assistance with the study.

The initial mailing took place on March 11<sup>th</sup> & 12<sup>th</sup>, 2008. The mailing intentionally took place the third week of March. This was projected to be slightly past the midpoint of the spring semester at most universities. This allowed sufficient time for a follow up mailing without getting too close to final exams, which normally occur toward the end of April. This timing helped to insure that the majority of students in placements would be nearing the end of their field practicum placements regardless of whether they were in concurrent placements or spring semester block placements.

To maintain anonymity and confidentiality, each questionnaire was assigned a number to identify nonrespondents for follow up mailings. An Excel control register was updated as questionnaires were returned. The names that were marked off the register



were deleted from the mailing labels. Only those participants whose questionnaires were not received got the second mailing.

The second mailing contained a cover letter which reiterated the importance of the study and expressed appreciation to any students who had already assisted with the study by returning their questionnaire. Social work students who had not returned their questionnaires were encouraged to do so. Questionnaires were included with this mailing in the event that students had misplaced the original questionnaire. This mailing occurred on April 8, 2008, three weeks after the initial mailing. After this mailing the control register was destroyed.

### *Instrumentation*

A survey instrument was developed for the purpose of measuring the variables in the study. Where existing scales and questions exist, these were used. The questionnaire includes questions about five personal demographic factors; five practicum site/organizational demographic factors; direct and indirect encounters with client violence; reporting client violence; fear of future violence; three types of occupational commitment; and career turnover intentions. A total of 17 factors were studied. The factors are identified here, with some description. For a list of all possible responses in each category, refer to the questionnaire in Appendix D.

### *Personal Demographic Variables*

Demographic information was obtained from the responses to ten questions. Five questions pertain to personal information regarding the participants' background. Those demographic categories were: gender, age, years of paid social work experience,

ethnicity, and current social work program enrollment (BSW/MSW). The personal demographic variables are discussed below.

*Gender.* Students were asked to check their gender. Response items are male and female.

*Age.* Students were asked to list their age as of their last birthday in number of years. Traditional aged BSW students were considered to be those under age 25 and traditional aged MSW students were considered to be aged 25-30. All students over the age of 30 were considered to be non-traditional aged students.

*Years of social service experience.* Students were asked the total number of years of paid social work experience they have had prior to their current degree program. A space was provided for their response in number of years. Less experienced students were considered to be those students who have had less than 2 years experience.

*Ethnicity.* Students were asked to identify their ethnic/racial origin by checking the category that most clearly describes them. Categories were derived from NASW membership ethnicity categories.

*BSW/ MSW.* Students were asked to check whether they are pursuing a BSW or MSW degree.

#### *Practicum/ Organizational Demographic Variables*

Information about five practicum/organization related variables was solicited. These include place of client violence, time of day of incident of violence, amount of safety training both within the social work program and outside the social work program,

practicum site practice setting, and field educator/student race match. These factors include those listed here:

*Place of client violence.* Students were asked to indicate where their most recent incident of violence took place for each type of violence listed. If they had not experienced a particular form of client violence, they checked “not applicable”.

*Time of day of client violence.* Students were asked to indicate the time of day that their most recent incident of violence took place for each type of violence listed. If they had not experienced a particular form of client violence, they circled “not applicable”.

*Practicum practice setting.* Students were asked to identify the type of social work setting where they had completed or were completing their practicum. They were asked to check only one category. Categories were the same as those used by NASW.

*Field educator/student ethnicity/race match.* Students were asked to identify the race of their field educator. The categories were derived from the categories used by NASW to identify student race. Students were then divided into four categories, according to how their race matched with the race of their field educator. The categories consisted of students and field educators whose race/ethnicities matched, White students whose field educators were of another race, non-White students whose field educators were of another race, and students of minority race/ethnicity whose field educators were of differing minority race/ethnicity.

*Training.* Students were asked to answer two questions about safety training that they have received during their practicum experience. The first question asked students to indicate whether or not they have received training in particular content areas.

Additionally, they were asked to check all of the places that they had received training in the various content areas regarding safety and violence issues. This subscale contained 19 content areas that have been identified by previous researchers (Faria & Kendra, 2007; Reeser & Wertkin, 2001) as areas that field directors perceive that they have offered training to students. Total numbers of content areas in which the student had received training was totaled for each venue of training. The second question asked students to what extent they felt prepared to effectively deal with situations in which they may be concerned about their personal safety.

*Subscales: Experience with Client Violence*

*Direct violence.* Client violence questions were based on a modified version of Newhill's (2003) definition of client violence. In Appendix H, Dr. Newhill's permission to use portions of the questionnaire used in her studies can be found. The following five categories of client violence were measured: actual physical assault, threat of physical assault, verbal abuse, threat of lawsuit, and damage to personal or agency property.

Participant social work students indicated the number of times they had experienced each type of violence during the practicum. If they did not experience a particular type of the violence during practicum, they indicated this with a zero.

*Indirect exposure to violence.* Indirect exposure to violence was measured concerning the same types of violence that were measured for direct violence. Participant social work students were asked to list the number of times they had heard about and/or witnessed each of the types of violence occurring to coworkers in the practicum or to

student colleagues while they had been in their practicum. If they had not experienced a particular type of violence, they indicated this with a zero.

*Subscale: Fear of Future Violence*

Fear of recurrence of violence in the workplace was measured using the Fear of Future Violent Events at Work scale. This scale was revised from a scale that was developed for use initially by Rogers and Kelloway (1997). It has also been used in other studies (Barling, et al, 2001; Schat & Kelloway, 2000). Permission to use the scale was given by Kevin Kelloway (See Appendix H). It is a six item scale that evaluates the degree to which a participant is fearful of becoming a victim of client violence in the next year (e.g. "I fear that I was be physically assaulted by a client."). Participants answer on a 5-point scale from 1(strongly disagree) to 5(strongly agree). High scores are indicative of increased fear of future client violence. The scale has been found to have good validity. Initial test of the scale showed that fear of future violence differed between persons who had been robbed and persons who had not been robbed at a bank ( $F(1, 185) = 5.29, p < .05$ ) (Rogers & Kelloway, 1997). Internal consistency for the scale was initially measured at .94. Other studies utilizing the same scale have found similar internal consistency scores of .95, .96, and .97 (Leblanc & Kelloway, 2002; Schat & Kelloway, 2000; Schat & Kelloway, 2003).

*Subscale: Occupational Commitment*

To measure the degree of commitment to the social work profession, the Occupational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) was used, as presented in the Client Violence Questionnaire (Appendix C). The OCS

consists of 18 items to assess three subscales: Affective commitment (ACS), Continuance commitment (CCS), and Normative commitment (NCS). Affective commitment refers to the participant's attitudes and feelings toward the occupation and his/her identification with the profession- staying because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to staying in the occupation because the participants need to do so. It involves tangible items such as salary and job security. Normative commitment refers to remaining with the occupation because the participant feels that they ought to do so. This scale was based on the earlier work of Meyer and Allen (1990) with an Organizational Commitment Scale. Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) modified the scale to be used to measure commitment to the occupation.

The OCS includes six items for each subscale. The items are arranged on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree", scored as 1, to "strongly agree", scored as 5. A higher degree of occupational commitment is indicated by higher scores. The minimum score on each subscale is six, and the maximum score is 30.

The Occupational Commitment Scale was initially published by the authors in the *Journal of Applied Psychology* and as such, is public domain. The initial testing of the scale was on nurses and nursing students and wording of the items specifically reflected this. For the purposes of this research, all references to nursing were changed to social work.

Internal consistency scores on the affective commitment subscale were as follows on the initial study: student pretest, .87; student posttest, .85, and practicing professionals, .82 (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Normative commitment scale internal consistency

scores were .73 and .77 on the two tests with the students and .83 on the tests with professionals. On the continuance commitment subscale, Cronbach alpha scores were .77 and .83 with the students' pretests and posttests and .74 with the professional.

The three components of commitment demonstrate good discriminant validity, in that they were differentially related to occupationally related behaviors and appeared to measure three distinct domains.

#### *Subscale: Career Withdrawal Intentions*

Turnover intentions were initially measured by Blau (1985), using a three-item scale that had initially been used to measure organizational withdrawal cognitions and changing the wording to reflect "profession" rather than "job". Identical three item pre- and post-measures were collected on the updated version of the scale in 1996 and 2000 (Blau, Tatum, and Ward-Cook, 2003). For the purposes of this study, the words "social work profession" were substituted for other professions that Blau measured. A sample item is "I intend to leave the profession of social work as soon as possible." The items were measured on a five-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Item responses were linearly summed to create a summed score. The minimum score was 3 and the maximum score was 15. Initial internal consistency reported was .87 and .85 (1985). Test-retest reliability was .57. Blau reported internal consistency of .93 in 1988. Coefficient alpha reliability estimates for the updated scale were .91 in 2000.

#### *Instrument Pilot Test*

All of the items discussed were compiled into a questionnaire that included 64 questions on the 17 factors. The instrument was completed by 15 undergraduate social

work students in a private university in central Florida. All of the students were female seniors who had been in their practicum placements for 80-100 hours. Most were traditional aged college students, with two non-traditional aged students in their early 40's. The questionnaire was given for validity purposes only, gleaned information about its readability, question clarity, completion time, and overall assessment. Though there was no intention to analyze the data, effort was made to help insure the students' anonymity. Because the researcher had personal knowledge of the students, they were asked not to complete information about their age, ethnicity, and primary area of service in field placement.

The time to complete the instrument ranged from 7 minutes to 11 minutes, with a mean time of 8.73 minutes. During the discussion following the completion of the instrument, several of the participants expressed difficulty in knowing how to answer a question about the amount of time they had spent in safety/violence training. They felt that this question might not really convey good information about the training they had received. They believed that it would be easier for them to identify specific areas of safety/content that they had learned about. As a result of this discussion, the initial question was removed from the questionnaire and it was replaced by a longer question asking for feedback on specific areas of safety content that they had covered. The students completed the replacement question the following week and commented that it was much easier to answer the question and they were able to recall safety training that they had not identified the previous week.



## *Statistical Procedures*

### *Variables*

The dependent variables for the first part of this study were five different types of direct exposure to client violence. Exposure to client violence was measured using a subscale that was a modification of a survey that was developed for the purpose of exploring client violence to social workers (Newhill, 2003). Social work students were asked to indicate the number of times they had experienced physical assault, threats of physical harm, verbal abuse, threats of lawsuit, and damage to personal or professional property during their practicum experience.

Other dependent variables included fear of future violence, occupational commitment, and career withdrawal intentions. These variables were measured using subscales that had established reliability and validity. All of these subscales were included in the questionnaire that was used for this study.

Independent variables for predicting client violence included gender; age; experience; ethnicity/racial background; current social work program enrollment (BSW/MSW); place of violence; time of violence; practice setting; racial/ethnic match of field educator and student; and amount of safety training in social work practice classes, field seminar, field agencies and other places. Client violence became an independent variable when measuring its effect on fear of future violence. Training on reporting client violence was an independent variable in reference to actual reporting client violence.

Fear of future violence was an independent variable when measuring its impact on occupational commitment and career withdrawal intentions. Additionally, occupational

commitment was an independent variable when measuring its impact on career withdrawal intentions.

### *Statistical Procedures*

Statistical methods used with the initial hypotheses included: chi square test of independence, *t*- test for independent samples, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and multiple regression.

To determine if fear of violence mediated the relationship between exposure to client violence and occupational commitment and career withdrawal intentions, a four step process was proposed (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Kenny, 2008). Each subsequent step was contingent upon significant findings in the preceding step. In this study, the condition for the first step required that there was a relationship between the dependent variables (types of direct and indirect client violence) and the independent variables (occupational commitment). However, since no significant relationships were found, the latter three steps of the mediation analysis were not conducted.

Data were analyzed utilizing the SPSS statistical program, version 16. Table 1 (Appendix A) presents the hypotheses, dependent variables, independent variables, and the type of statistical analysis that was used for each of the hypotheses.

## Chapter IV

### Results

This chapter presents analysis and results of the study data. Descriptive statistics will be discussed initially. The findings concerning subscales and scales will then be discussed. The results of hypotheses testing will be the third major section of the chapter. Finally, there is a discussion of analyses on predictors of client violence.

#### *Descriptive Statistics*

##### *Study Sample of Social Work Students*

The total sample for this study consisted of 1500 social work students. Cover letters and questionnaires were mailed to a stratified random sample of the current national student membership of National Association of Social Workers. Twenty-six of the 1500 mailings were returned undeliverable. Of the 1474 potential respondents remaining in the sample 667 returned their survey instruments, yielding a response rate of 45.25%. Among them, 72 did not meet the inclusion criteria for the study, in that they had not yet begun field practicum. There remained 595 questionnaires that met inclusion criteria and thus were used for this study.

##### *Personal Demographics of Social Work Student Sample*

Personal demographic data from this sample of social work students were collected and analyzed. Table 2 (Appendix A) presents frequencies of the demographic

characteristics of the sample as a whole and by BSW and MSW program. The following sections include discussion concerning gender, age, experience level, ethnicity, and current social work degree program of the social work students

*Gender.* Of the 593 social work students who responded to this survey item, 88.2% ( $n = 525$ ) were female and 11.4% ( $n = 68$ ) were male (See Appendix A, Table 2). Two (.3%) social work students did not respond to this question. When broken down into the social work program in which they were enrolled, 91.9% ( $n = 227$ ) of the BSW students were female and 8.1% ( $n = 20$ ) were males. In its most recent summary of social work education statistics, CSWE (2006) reported that 15% of fulltime BSW students and 12% of part-time BSW students are male. Thus this sample yielded a slightly lower percentage of BSW males than the national statistics. This study was additionally comprised of 86.4% ( $n = 293$ ) female MSW students and 13.6% ( $n = 46$ ) male MSW students. In this case the percentage of males more closely aligned with the national percentages of male MSW students, reported to be 13.3% (full time) and 15.5% (part-time) (CSWE, 2006).

*Age.* Five hundred fifty eight (93.7%) social work students listed their age. Thirty seven (6.3%) respondents declined to report their age. Data was compared from the cases that did not list age to cases where age was reported. *T*-tests and chi squares were performed as appropriate for the variable and it was found that there were no significant differences between those who did and did not list age. For quantitative variables with more than 5% of the cases missing it is recommended that a method of replacement be used (Mertler & Vennatta, 2005). The option that is most commonly used

for replacing missing data is substituting the series mean, which is the mean of all available cases for the variable. In this case, the mean age was 33.1 ( $SD = 10.67$ ) and the median age was 29, with the ages of the students ranging from 20 to 64. The mean age was substituted for all missing cases.

Prior to substituting the mean for missing cases, the skew value for the age variable was 11.46 and kurtosis was 132.07. After substituting the mean the skew was .884 and the kurtosis was -.244. These were closer to 0 and less than the absolute value of 2, which are considered acceptable values for skew and kurtosis (Heppner & Heppner, 2004).

Prior to substituting the mean age for missing cases, social work students were grouped into age ranges in order to view data on traditional aged students vs. non-traditional aged students. The first age group included students from the youngest to 24, which would typically be considered to be a traditional age range for a bachelors level college student. The next group included those aged 25-30, which might approximate the age of a masters level college student. Beyond these two groupings, students were grouped in ten year age spans for those in their 30's and 40's and the final category was for those respondents 51 and up. As Table 2 (Appendix A) indicates, one hundred forty five students (24.4%) were aged 24 and below. An additional 27.4% ( $n = 163$ ) of the respondents were aged 25-30, making this the largest age group. As might be expected in a student population, the age group frequencies diminished as age increased, with 18.8% ( $n = 112$ ) aged 31-40, 14.5% ( $n = 86$ ) aged 41-50, and 8.7% ( $n = 52$ ) over the age of 51.

When divided into social work degree groups, the largest percentage (44.5%) of BSW students was in the 24 and under group. There were only 13.0% of MSW students in this group. However, in the next category of those aged 25-30, the percentages were reversed, with 17.0% of the BSW students and 38.2% of the MSW students. In the remainder of the age groups, there were only slightly more MSW students than BSW students.

*Experience.* Four percent ( $n = 25$ ) of the respondents did not list years of experience. Analyses were completed to determine if there were any patterns indicated for those who did not document experience level. In all of the tests, a variable was created to indicate those reporting and those who did not. A chi square test showed that BSW students were significantly less likely to report years of experience than MSW students,  $\chi^2 (1, N = 588) = 5.36, p = .02$ , however the effect size was small ( $V = .08$ ). Additionally,  $t$ -tests were used to check for differences between those who reported experience and those who did not. There were two significant findings. Those who had more safety training content in field seminar ( $M = 7.45, SD = 5.87$ ) reported their experience level less often than those who had less training content ( $M = 3.79, SD = 4.55$ ),  $t (569) = 3.67, p < .001, d = .73$ . Similarly, those who had more safety training content in social work classes ( $M = 12.45, SD = 5.74$ ) were less likely to report experience level than those who had less training content ( $M = 7.38, SD = 5.23$ ),  $t (570) = 4.44, p < .001, d = .94$ . Since the percentage of missing cases was close to 5%, the series mean of years of experience was substituted for all missing cases. The mean was 2.75( $SD = 4.64$ ) with a range of 1 to 29 years of experience.

Prior to substitution of the mean, the skew value of the experience variable was 23.46 and the kurtosis was 132.07. After mean substitution the skew was 2.58 and the kurtosis was 8.50. While these were closer to the acceptable absolute value of 2, there was concern that the kurtosis value was higher than acceptable. The variable was screened for outliers and with the use of boxplots, it was discovered that there were 16 very extreme outliers and 16 other less extreme outliers that were skewing the data. All of the significant outlier cases had over 10 years experience thus a decision was made to delete the 32 cases with over 10 years experience in major analyses. When these cases were eliminated, the skew was 1.38 and the kurtosis was .925.

The majority of the social work students in the survey had little paid social work experience. Of the 570 who responded to this question, 49.4% ( $n = 294$ ) had no experience. An additional 15.1 % ( $n = 90$ ) of the total sample had 1-2 years of experience. Thirty three percent of the students had more than 3 years experience, with 6.4% ( $n = 38$ ) having more than 10 years experience. When divided into degree categories, 77.7% of the BSW students had no experience, compared to 33.6% of the MSW students.

*Ethnicity/race.* White social work students ( $n = 425$ ) comprised the majority (71.4%) of the respondents. In spite of efforts to oversample students of minority ethnicities, only 27.4% responded. This is slightly less than the 35.6% of all BSW students and 29.4 of all MSW students enrolled in social work programs in the U. S. reported to be from minority ethnicities (CSWE, 2006). Ninety-nine Black students (16.6%) responded to the question about ethnicity. The remaining ethnic groups were

represented by less than five percent of the total number of students. There were 4.3% ( $n = 25$ ) Latino/Hispanic students, 3.6% ( $n = 21$ ) of mixed heritage, and 2.2% ( $n = 13$ ) Native Americans. The least frequently reported race/ethnicity (.8%) was Asian/Pacific Islanders ( $n = 5$ ).

*Current social work degree program.* A total of 340 (57.1%) of the survey respondents were MSW students, whereas 248 (42.2%) were in the process of earning a BSW degree. Seven (1.2%) students did not list their current degree program. Of the MSW students who responded to the survey 31.6% had 250 to 749 hours in field practicum. An additional 37.8% had 500 or more hours at their field sites. Few MSW students (7.4%) had less than 250 hours of experience in the field. In contrast, 75% of the BSW students had between 250 and 749 hours in their practicum and 18.9% had less than 250 hours in the field.

#### *Social Work Students' Practicum Characteristics*

*Home visits.* Because there was a hypothesis concerning the possibility that violence occurred in differing amounts in different settings, a preliminary question was asked concerning the number of home visits the students made during their practicum. As Table 3 (Appendix A) indicates, almost half (46.4%,  $n = 274$ ) of the respondents said that they did not make any home visits. Of the students who made home visits, the majority (56%,  $n = 177$ ) made 11 or more home visits while eighty four (26.6%) made between one and five home visits and 17.4% ( $n = 55$ ) made between six to ten visits. Similar percentages of MSW and BSW students made home visits. Half (49.6%,  $n = 167$ ) of the MSW students and 42.3% ( $n = 105$ ) of BSW students had made no home visits. On the



opposite end of the continuum, almost one third of MSW students (28.8%,  $n = 97$ ) and BSW students (31.5%,  $n = 78$ ) made 11 or more home visits during their practicum.

Students making 11 or more home visits were significantly more likely to be working in children/youth/child protection settings,  $\chi^2(30, N = 582) = 1.25, V = .27$ . Twenty nine percent ( $n = 51$ ) of those making 11 or more home visits were in children/youth/child protection settings. This was followed next by 15.3% ( $n = 27$ ) of the student workers who were in mental health/psychiatric settings, and 13.6% ( $n = 24$ ) who were in family service settings. These percentages contrast greatly with the 2.3% ( $n = 4$ ) of students in alcohol/substance abuse work who made 11 or more home visits during their practicum.

Of those students in children/youth/child protection settings, only 22.2% ( $n = 23$ ) had never made a home visit, whereas 49.5% ( $n = 51$ ) had made 11 or more visits. Those students in developmental disabilities work (33.3%,  $n = 5$ ) and family services work (34.6%,  $n = 18$ ) were the next smallest groups of students to make no home visits. In contrast, 78.6% ( $n = 33$ ) of students in alcohol/substance abuse settings had never made a home visit.

*Work during evening hours.* One of the hypotheses stated that students would experience differing amounts of violence depending on the time of day. Therefore, an initial question was asked about the percentage of time the students worked during evening hours. One third of the respondents (33.3%,  $n = 198$ ) stated that they did not work any evening hours, but the largest category of students (42.7%,  $n = 254$ ) indicated that they completed 1-25% of their practicum during evening hours (See Appendix A,

Table 3). A much smaller percentage (23.3%,  $n = 139$ ) of the students worked evening hours more than 25% of the time.

Among those who worked at least some evening hours, almost thirty five percent ( $n = 8$ ) of students in corrections/criminal justice worked 51-100% evening hours. This group was followed by 31.3% ( $n = 10$ ) of students in alcohol/substance abuse settings, and 27.3% ( $n = 12$ ) in family services settings. By way of contrast, only one (5%) of the school social worker students worked more than 50% of hours in the evening. Of those who completed 76-100% of their practicum in the evenings, 80% ( $n = 24$ ) were MSW students and 20% ( $n = 6$ ) were BSW students. All of these students were female. The majority (62.1%,  $n = 18$ ) were White.

*Practicum practice settings.* Social work students were asked to select one practice setting that best described where they were completing their internships. The three largest practice settings were children/youth/child protective services, with 17.5% ( $n = 104$ ) of the students, psychiatric/mental health with 17.0% ( $n = 101$ ), and medical/healthcare services (11.9%,  $n = 71$ ). Six settings were designated by between 5 to 10 % of the students. They were: family services (8.7%,  $n = 52$ ); school social work (7.9%,  $n = 47$ ); alcohol/drug/substance abuse services (7.1%,  $n = 42$ ); service to the aged (6.9%,  $n = 41$ ); community center/organization/planning (6.6%,  $n = 39$ ); and corrections/criminal justice (6.4%,  $n = 38$ ). Four categories were listed by less than 5 % of the students: developmental disabilities (2.5%,  $n = 15$ ); occupational/vocational (1.0%,  $n = 6$ ); group services (.7%,  $n = 4$ ); and public assistance/welfare (.3%,  $n = 2$ ). Twenty

five (4.2%) listed “other” as their practice setting. Eight (1.3%) people did not complete this question.

In order to do further analysis with this variable, three practice settings were merged with the “other” category, because the small numbers in those categories prohibited further analysis: group services ( $n = 4$ ); occupational/ vocational ( $n = 6$ ); and public assistance/welfare ( $n = 2$ ). A chi square was then done to determine the percentages of MSW and BSW students in the various practice areas (See Table 3, Appendix A). Some significant differences were found,  $\chi^2 (10, N = 580) = 31.477$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $V = .23$ . For instance, higher percentages of the MSW students could be found in hospital/medical care settings, alcohol/drug/substance abuse work, schools, community organizations, schools and psychiatric/mental health settings. The difference was most marked with psychiatric/mental health work, where 22.3% ( $n = 75$ ) of MSW students and 10.7% ( $n = 26$ ) of the BSW students worked. Phrased differently, 74.3% ( $n = 75$ ) of those in mental health work were MSW students and 25.7% ( $n = 26$ ) were BSW students. Higher percentages of BSW students could be found in work with developmental disabilities, corrections/criminal justice, children and youth/child protection, and family services. Work with children and youth/child protection work was the area with the most marked difference with 23.0% ( $n = 56$ ) of the BSW students in this practicum setting versus 14.0% ( $n = 47$ ) of the MSW students.

*Race/ethnicity of the field educator.* One of the research hypotheses related to having the same or different race field educator, so a question was asked about the ethnicity of the field educator. The majority (63.4%,  $n = 377$ ) of the field educators were

White, while 26.1% ( $n = 133$ ) were of minority ethnicities. Black field educators comprised the largest minority group (14.1%,  $n = 84$ ) with Latino/Hispanic instructors making the second largest group (3.0%,  $n = 18$ ). The remaining ethnic groups were represented by smaller numbers: 13 (2.2%) mixed heritage; 10 (1.7%) Native American; and 6 (1.0%) Asian/Pacific Islanders.

Eighty seven (14.6%) students did not list their field educators' ethnicity. This is very near the 15% break point at which consideration should be given to dropping the variable from the analysis (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). However, the variable was retained to assess the effect of field educator race on exposure to violence as no other client violence studies have asked this question. A variable was created to trace patterns of those who reported field educator race versus those who did not. This variable was then used in  $t$ -tests and chi square, as appropriate per variable. A chi square test showed a significant difference between the race of the students who did and did not report race  $\chi^2 (1, N = 588) = 4.069, p < .05, V = .08$ . Thirty (18.4%) of the minority students did not report race of field educator versus 51 (12.0%) White students.

Additionally, independent groups  $t$ -tests revealed that those students who listed the race of their field educator were significantly more likely to report that changing careers would be hard,  $t (584) = .178, p < .05, d = .24$ , (Race missing:  $M = 2.96, SD = 1.32$ , Race listed:  $M = 3.28, SD = 1.33$ ), changing careers would be costly,  $t (103.999) = -2.04, p = .026, d = .27$  (Race missing:  $M = 3.24, SD = 1.46$ , Race listed:  $M = 3.59, SD = 1.28$ ), and changing careers would be a sacrifice,  $t (583) = -2.13,$

$p = .033, d = .25$  (Race missing:  $M = 2.86, SD = 1.46$ , Race listed:  $M = 3.20, SD = 1.36$ ).

These are three of the five items on the continuance commitment scale. Not surprisingly then, the same pattern was found with the summed continuance scale. Those who listed field educator race ( $M = 16.48, SD = 5.11$ ) had stronger continuance commitment than those who did not list field educator race ( $M = 15.23, SD = 4.97$ ),  $t(583) = -2.071, p = .039, d = .25$ .

A final pattern emerged concerning missing data patterns for field educator race. Concerning amount of safety training received, an independent groups  $t$ -test showed that those who listed race of field educator ( $M = 3.72, SD = 4.19$ ) had significantly less training in social work field seminar than those who did not list race ( $M = 5.15, SD = 5.81$ ),  $t(94.45) = 2.205, p = .038, d = .32$ . Similarly, those who listed the race of field educator had significantly less training at their field agencies ( $M = 6.03, SD = 5.14$ ) than those who did not list the race of their field educators ( $M = 7.50, SD = 5.39$ ),  $t(570) = 2.37, p = .018, d = .28$ .

*Field educator/ Student race match.* A new variable was created to reflect the race match between the field educator and student. The categories consisted of those field educator-student dyads that were of the same ethnicity, those dyads where the supervisor was White and the student was non-White, those where the supervisor was non-White and the student was White and those where the field educator was of one minority racial/ethnic and the student as of a differing racial/ethnic groups. Of those reporting student and field educator race, 57.5% ( $n = 342$ ) were supervision dyads that were

matched in ethnicity. Almost a third (27.7%,  $n = 165$ ) had a mixed ethnicity dyad. Supervision dyads with a White supervisor and a non-White student made up 12.6% ( $n = 75$ ). A very similar percentage (12.9%,  $n = 77$ ) of the dyads had non-White supervisors and White students. The smallest group was field educators and students who were of mixed minority ethnicities (2.2%,  $n = 13$ ). There were 4 Latino students, 1 Asian student, 5 Black students and 3 student of mixed ethnic heritage represented in these dyads.

This variable contained 88 (14.8%) missing cases. Missing cases would be those not reporting student race and those not reporting field educator races, most of whom would be those not reporting field educator race, as discussed in the previous section.

### *Safety Training*

Training in safety and client violence was measured by constructing a list of 17 areas that were mentioned in previous studies where field directors were asked about content areas in which they offered training. Additionally, students were asked whether they had knowledge about field agency safety policies and social work program safety policies. For each of these 19 training content areas, students were asked if they had training in social work practice classes, social work field seminar, field agencies, or in places another place.

There were 572 students who addressed every content area in each training venue. Five others responded generally that they had either had the content or had not had the content, but they did not indicate any areas where they received the training. Therefore it was not possible to include these responses in the totals per training venue. Eighteen did not respond at all to the questions about training. This combined to a total of 23 (3.9%) who had missing data about training. to examine possible patterns in cases with missing

data, variables were created to reflect those who responded about training in various venues and those who did not respond. *T*- tests and chi squares were completed as appropriate with all of the demographic variables as well as all variables in the hypotheses. Across all training venues, there was only one significant finding. Chi square tests indicated that there was a significant relationship between students' race and those who did not report training in any area  $\chi^2 (1, N = 588), p = .01, V = .14$ . Of those who did not report training 59.1% ( $n = 13$ ) were of minority ethnicity and 40.9% ( $n = 9$ ) were White.

*Totals of training content areas.* For each training venue, the numbers of content areas in which the students had received training were totaled. The mean number of content areas covered in social work practice classes was 7.63 ( $SD = 5.38$ ). The median number of content areas was 7. Forty two (7.2%) of the students had received no safety training in social work practice classes. On the opposite end of the continuum, seventeen (2.9%) had received training in every content area. When numbers of content areas were grouped to view the data more comprehensively 33.3% ( $n = 190$ ) of respondents had training in five or less of the content areas in social work practice classes. As numbers of content areas increased, every category showed progressively fewer respondents who had experienced training. Almost 30 percent ( $n = 171$ ) of students had covered six to ten training content areas, 19.8% ( $n = 113$ ) had training in 11 to 15 areas and 9.5% ( $n = 54$ ) had experienced training in 16 to 19 content areas.

Overall, fewer students stated that they had received safety training in field seminar, with a mean number of content areas covered being 3.92 ( $SD = 4.66$ ) of 19. Two

was the median number of content areas covered. A third (33.0%,  $n = 190$ ) reported no training in field seminar in any of the safety content areas. When categorized, a large majority (72.2%,  $n = 413$ ) of students remembered covering five or less training content areas in field seminar. The decline of percentages of respondents in categories with higher amounts of training was notable, with 16.6% ( $n = 95$ ) having six to ten areas of training, 7.5% ( $n = 43$ ) with 11 to 15 areas of training, and 3.5% with 16 to 19 areas of training covered in field seminar. Only 4 students (.7%) had training in all 19 areas in field seminar.

At the field practicum agency, 12.9% ( $n = 74$ ) reported receiving no safety training at all. The mean number of safety training content areas covered by the agencies was 6.24 ( $SD = 5.20$ ). The median of incident was 5. Only 19.9% ( $n = 131$ ) received training in more than 11 content areas and 24.7% had training in six to ten content areas at their field agencies. In contrast, 52.4% ( $n = 300$ ) had training in five or less content areas. Slightly more than one percent (1.5%,  $n = 9$ ) had training in all 19 areas.

Slightly more than half of the students (54.4 %,  $n = 311$ ) had received training from other sources. The median number of content areas covered was 1 and the mean was 3.68 ( $SD = 5.18$ ). Two hundred sixty six (45.6%) received no training from other sources and 27.6% ( $n = 158$ ) had training in one to five content areas. Much lower percentages of participants received training from more than five content areas. Almost 12% ( $n = 68$ ) received training in six to ten content areas; 10.0% ( $n = 57$ ) had training in 11 to 15 areas; and 4.9% ( $n = 28$ ) had 16 to 19 areas of training from other sources.



*Total training in the social work program per content area.* For each content area, responses were summed across the training venues to see how many parts of the social work program (social work practice classes, field seminar, field agency) addressed the content area. The intent of this analysis was to determine if safety content was being reinforced across the social work program. The content areas of “knowledge of the social work program’s safety policies” and “knowledge of the field agency’s policies” were not included in these analyses because it was presumed that there would not be training in these two areas by all three parts of the social work program. For example, it was not presumed that training in field seminar would cover the safety policies of individual agencies. Table 4 (Appendix A) reflects the percentages of students who received training in given content areas in more than one part of the social work program.

The content area that was received by the most students (17.5%,  $n = 100$ ) in all three parts of the social work program was “maintaining a confident, secure demeanor”. The next highest content area covered by all three parts of the program was “keeping supervisor informed of one’s itinerary”, which was received by 16.4% ( $n = 94$ ) of the students. There were seven other content areas that were received from all three parts of the program by between 10% to 16.4% of the students. Eight content areas were received by less than 10% of the students from all three parts of the social work program. The content areas least likely to be received by students in all three places were “physical techniques for self protection” (3.5%,  $n = 20$ ), “characteristics/life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts” (4.5%,  $n = 26$ ), and “physical signs that attack is imminent” (5.2%,  $n = 30$ ).

Next, percentages were calculated for students who had training in both field seminar and the field agency and secondly, in both social practice classes and field seminar. The patterns were similar, though the percentages of students who had training in both practice classes and the field agency were higher than percentages of those who had training in both field seminar and field agency. Percentage of students having training in both field seminar and field agency ranged from 5.1% ( $n = 29$ ) to 21.5% ( $n = 29$ ) per content area. Content areas received by less than 7% of students from field seminar and the field agency were the same three content areas least received by three parts of the program, as reported in the previous paragraph, in addition to “forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior” (6.1%,  $n = 36$ ) and “assessing history of violence in clients” (6.5%,  $n = 37$ ). When looking at the reverse side of this training question, those students who received no training in either field seminar or field agency in a given content area training ranged from a low of 40.0% (“keeping supervisor informed”) to a high of 76.7% (“physical techniques for self protection”).

Percentages of students receiving training in both social work practice classes and their field agency were the highest percentages of the three possible combinations of training within the social work program. Yet even here the highest percentage of students who had received training in both places was 23.8% ( $n = 136$ ). The lowest percentage of students who received training in practice classes and the field agency was the 6.1% ( $n = 35$ ) who had received training in physical techniques for self protection. When the percentages are viewed in terms of students who received no training in both social work practice classes and their field agencies, there were four content areas where more than

50% of the students had received no training in both areas. Additionally, there were 13 content areas where at least 27% of the students received no training in both places.

*Individual training content in social work practice classes.* Individual training content areas were explored to see the percentages of students who had training in each content area for each venue (See Appendix A, Table 5 for a complete listing and Figure 2 for depiction of the same). In social work practice classes, the content area taught most often was where to sit when interacting with a client (58%,  $n = 345$ ). Only three other content areas were experienced by at least 50% of the respondents in their social work practice classes. They were: forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior (55.5%,  $n = 330$ ); identifying and managing feelings that can arise when working with victims and perpetrators of violence (51.1%,  $n = 301$ ); and maintaining a confident, secure demeanor (52.8%,  $n = 214$ ). The content area taught the least was physical techniques for self protection (14.5%,  $n = 86$ ). Only 40.5% ( $n = 241$ ) of the students said that they had received training on the social work program's safety policies.

When the percentages are reversed to reflect those who received no training in particular content areas, there were eight areas where more than 60% of the respondents received no training in social work practice classes (See Appendix A, Table 6). In ascending order they are: physical techniques for self protection (81.7%,  $n = 486$ ); recognizing physical signs that attack is imminent (71.3%,  $n = 424$ ); recording incidents of violence (68.6%,  $n = 408$ ); debriefing and support after an incident /reporting the incident (64.9%,  $n = 386$ ); assessing history of violence in clients (62.2%,  $n = 370$ ); home visit safety (60.7,  $n = 361$ ); and keeping supervisor informed of one's itinerary (60.5%,

$n = 360$ ).

*Individual training content in social work field seminar.* In social work field seminar, no content area was experienced by more than 35% of the respondents. The five content areas in which the students received the most training in field seminar were: keeping the supervisor informed of one's itinerary (30.1%,  $n = 179$ ); maintaining a confident, secure demeanor (26.7%,  $n = 159$ ); where to sit when interacting with a client (26.6%,  $n = 158$ ); home visit safety (25.2%,  $n = 150$ ); and characteristics of high risk situations such as being in non-public, isolated places (24.4%,  $n = 145$ ). Less than 10% of the respondents reported having content in the following areas during field seminar: assessing history of violence (8.6%,  $n = 51$ ); characteristics/ life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts (8.9%,  $n = 53$ ); and physical techniques for self protection (8.7%,  $n = 52$ ).

As with content in social work classes, percentages of those having training in content areas in field seminar were inverted to emphasize how many respondents did not have training in each area. In all but two of the nineteen content areas, more than 68% received no training. In the two areas that remained, 62.5% ( $n = 372$ ) had not received training in understanding student rights and 65.2% ( $n = 388$ ) had not received training concerning the safety policies of the social work program in field seminar.

*Individual training content in field practicum agency.* At the practicum agency, the content area received in training most frequently was keeping supervisor informed of one's itinerary (49.1%,  $n = 292$ ). Additionally, 67.3% ( $n = 385$ ) of the respondents had training on the field agency's safety policies. Students also had training more frequently

at their agencies on debriefing and support after an incident takes place (38.7%,  $n = 230$ ) and recording incidents of violence (37.5%,  $n = 225$ ) than in field seminar and social work practice classes. Between 17.5% and 33.3% of students reported that they had training at the practicum agency in each of the other content areas.

When percentages were inverted and reported as those who did not receive training in the practicum agency, 62% or more respondents did not receive any training in 15 of 19 content areas. The content area where the largest percent (76%,  $n = 452$ ) of students did not receive training in the field agency was recognizing characteristics/life experiences of people likely to commit violent acts.

*Other training sources.* The content areas in which the highest percentage of students received the most training outside of practice classes, field seminar or the field agency were verbal de-escalation (25.2 %,  $n = 150$ ) and physical techniques for self protection (25.9 %,  $n = 154$ ). Other areas with percentages over 20% were: characteristics of high risk situations (23.9%,  $n = 142$ ); recognizing verbal acts of violence (23.5,  $n = 140$ ); forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior (23.0%,  $n = 137$ ); maintaining a confident, secure demeanor (22.5%,  $n = 134$ ); and physical signs that attack is imminent (21.8%,  $n = 130$ ). Several students added in comments on where they received other training, which included: prior or present social work employment sites outside of the social work program; speakers; volunteer work; psychopathology class; personal therapy sessions; police seminars; and continuing education units.

*Additional analyses concerning training.* Additional analyses were completed to compute the level of training according to some of the demographic variables. A  $t$ -test

was used to test whether BSW students or MSW students received more training. This revealed a significant difference between the two groups in amount of training in field seminar,  $t(466.441) = 3.78, p < .001, d = .32$  and social work practice classes,  $t(563) = 5.23, p < .001, d = .44$ . LSD post hoc tests revealed that BSW students received more training than MSW students in field seminar (BSW:  $M = 4.79, SD = 4.93$ ; MSW:  $M = 3.28, SD = 4.34$ ) and social work practice classes (BSW:  $M = 9.00, SD = 5.50$ ; MSW:  $M = 6.65, SD = 5.07$ ). In contrast, MSW students received more training than BSW students from sources other than social work practice classes, field seminar and the practicum agency, other training sources  $t(562.95) = -5.753, p < .001, d = .46$ , (MSW:  $M = 4.66, SD = 5.66$ ; BSW:  $M = 2.30, SD = 4.09$ ).

ANOVA computations were performed to check for differences in training per age category, using the categories of below 25, 25-30, and above 30. Students aged 25-30 had significantly less training ( $M = 6.41, SD = 4.85$ ) in social work practice classes than students under 25 ( $M = 8.22, SD = 4.74$ ) and students over 30 ( $M = 8.05, SD = 5.86$ ),  $F(2, 567) = 5.84, p = .003, \eta^2 = .02$ . Additionally, students under 25 had significantly less training ( $M = 1.69, SD = 3.11$ ) in places other than the social work program than students 25-30 ( $M = 3.56, SD = 4.85$ ) or students over 30 ( $M = 4.79, SD = 5.86$ ),  $F(2, 569) = 17.76, p < .001, \eta^2 = .06$ .

Total training in different training venues was also compared according to level of experience. Students with no experience had significantly more training ( $M = 4.15, SD = 4.70$ ) in field seminar than students with 1-2 years ( $M = 2.60, SD = 3.74$ ), or those with 5-10 years' experience ( $M = 2.92, SD = 3.81$ ),  $F(3, 510) = 3.63, p = .013, \eta^2 = .05$ .

Students who received more training from other training venues were significantly more likely to have 5-10 years' experience ( $M = 6.62, SD = 6.37$ ) than no experience ( $M = 2.20, SD = 3.96$ ), 1-2 years' experience ( $M = 3.64, SD = 4.77$ ), or 3-5 years' experience ( $M = 4.99, SD = 6.37$ ),  $F(3, 511) = 18.92, p < .001, \eta^2 = .17$ .

Males were significantly more likely to receive training in field agencies ( $M = 8.44, SD = 5.26$ ) than females ( $M = 5.93, SD = 5.06$ ),  $t(512) = -3.44, p = .001, d = .17$ . Additionally, males were significantly more likely to have more total training in all venues ( $M = 23.76, SD = 12.81$ ) than females ( $M = 20.31, SD = 12.36$ ),  $t(509) = -1.937, p = .05, d = .28$ .

Practice settings were compared as to the amount of field agency training that was received by the students. Students in criminal justice settings ( $M = 8.09, SD = 5.98$ ) and students in children/youth/ child protection settings ( $M = 7.55, SD = 5.17$ ) were significantly likely to have increased training at the field agency than students in alcohol/substance abuse settings ( $M = 5.44, SD = 4.78$ ), community organization settings ( $M = 4.44, SD = 4.77$ ), and school social work settings ( $M = 5.57, SD = 4.48$ ). Additionally students in mental health settings ( $M = 6.93, SD = 5.02$ ) had significantly more training at their field agencies than students in community organization settings,  $F(10, 497) = 3.03, p = .001, \eta^2 = .06$ .

*Extent prepared to deal with violent clients.* A final question related to training was whether students felt prepared to deal with violent or potentially violent clients. Less than half (44.2%,  $n = 247$ ) of the students felt mostly or fully prepared. Forty two (7.1%) said that they felt fully prepared and 36% ( $n = 205$ ) related feeling mostly prepared. In

contrast, a slightly larger percentage (55.9%,  $n = 312$ ) said that they felt somewhat or not at all prepared. Two hundred thirty four (41.9%) said that they felt somewhat prepared, while 14% ( $n = 78$ ) said that they were not at all prepared to deal with violent clients.

There were 36 (6.1%) students who did not answer the “extent prepared” question. A variable was constructed to measure those who responded to this question versus those who did not respond. Chi square and  $t$ -tests were performed as appropriate to the variable to determine any missing data patterns. The only significant  $t$ -test indicated that those who did not respond to the “extent prepared” question ( $M = 4.77$ ,  $SD = 3.88$ ) had less safety training content in social work classes than those who did respond to the question ( $M = 7.64$ ,  $SD = 5.35$ ),  $t(13.087) = -2.613$ ,  $p = .021$ ,  $d = .53$ .

*Extent prepared relationships with other variables.* Chi square tests were performed with categorical variables and “extent prepared” to check for significant relationships. The first significant test showed that males feel significantly more prepared than females to deal with violent clients,  $\chi^2(3) = 16.087$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $V = .017$ . Sixty five percent ( $n = 42$ ) of males felt fully or mostly prepared, versus 41.5% ( $n = 205$ ) of the females. Another test indicated that MSW students feel more prepared than BSW students,  $\chi^2(3) = 8.971$ ,  $p = .030$ ,  $V = .13$ . One hundred fifty five (48.6%) MSW students felt at least mostly prepared, whereas 38.2% ( $n = 89$ ) of the BSW students felt equally as prepared. A further chi square test suggested that students who are 24 years of age and below feel the least prepared to deal with violent clients,  $\chi^2(15) = 25.164$ ,  $p = .048$ ,  $V = .12$ . As students’ ages progressed, so did their perception that they were prepared to deal with violent or potentially violent clients. The exception to this was that the students



who were over the age of 50 felt less prepared than students 25-50, though more prepared than the youngest group.

A final significant chi square test indicated that those students with more paid social work experience had progressively more feelings of being prepared to deal with violence,  $\chi^2 (15) = 56.63, p < .001, V = .19$ . For example, 77.4% ( $n = 24$ ) of the respondents who had 11 or more years experience felt fully or mostly prepared, whereas of those students who had no experience 34.4% ( $n = 97$ ) felt prepared at the same level. Chi square tests on practice setting and student race were not significant.

Pearson's correlations were performed between totals of training content areas received in each training venue and the extent to which students felt prepared. For every venue of training, total training units was negatively related to the extent of feeling prepared. The extent prepared variable was scored with a 1 indicating being fully prepared, so lower scores indicate more preparedness. Therefore, feelings of preparedness to deal with violence is significantly correlated with training in social work practice classes ( $r = -.291, p < .001$ ), field seminar ( $r = -.198, p < .001$ ), field agency ( $r = -.246, p < .001$ ), other training ( $r = -.300, p < .001$ ) and total training in all venues ( $r = -.408, p < .01$ ).

Another Pearson's correlation was completed between types of occupational commitment and extent prepared. The only correlation among the types of commitment was affective commitment, the desire to be part of a profession. Affective commitment is significantly negatively correlated with perceptions of preparedness ( $r = -.137, p < .01$ ). With the reminder that lower scores on extent prepared mean feeling more prepared, the

implications is that as students feel more prepared to deal with violence, they have higher affective commitment, which is commitment due to desire to be part of a profession.

*Prevalence of Direct Client Violence against Social Work Students*

Client violence was the primary dependent variable for most of the hypotheses in this study. Social work students were asked to write the number of times they have directly experienced five types of violence during their practicum. The numbers were then summed for a total number of direct encounters with any type of violence.

*Prevalence rate of direct incidents of client violence.* Of the 589 social workers who responded to the questions on direct client violence, 248 had experienced client violence, meaning that the prevalence rate for social work students experiencing violence during their practicum was 41.7% (Appendix A, Table 7). Conversely, 57.8% ( $n = 347$ ) of the students had not directly experienced violence.

*Prevalence rate by types of violence.* The most common type of violence experienced directly by this sample of social work students was verbal abuse (37.5%,  $n = 223$ ), as indicated in Table 8 (Appendix A). The next most prevalent type of violence was threat of physical harm, with 84 (14.1%) being victimized in this manner. Fifty six (9.4%) of the students had been threatened with a lawsuit and 43 (7.2%) had experienced damage to property. The smallest category of client violence was physical assault, with 21 (3.5%) of the students reporting assault.

*Total incidents of direct exposure to client violence.* Two hundred forty eight social work students (41.7%) recorded 1591 incidents of direct exposure to client violence (Appendix A, Table 9). The mean number of incidents was 2.69. The standard

deviation was 21.17, indicating wide variance in the number of incidences. One person recorded 500 incidents of verbal abuse, which contributed to the maximum number of total violent incidents being 506, since this individual also experienced other types of violence.

*Transformation of direct violence variables.* Because of a few students reporting extreme high numbers of various types of violence, the mean number of incidents was not indicative of the overall sample's experience with direct violence and the skewedness and kurtosis values were unacceptably high. Six methods were attempted to reduce the effect of the outliers. Log transformations and inverse transformations were attempted, as is sometimes recommended for markedly positive skew values. Though the skew and kurtosis were substantially reduced, the skew and kurtosis values were still over 2 and the violence variables continued to deviate from normal distributions. Attempts were also made to eliminate cases over 3 and then 4 standard deviations. These transformations also reduced the skew and kurtosis, but they were still above the absolute value of two, the distributions were still not normal, and cases were lost that could have related valuable information. Another attempt was made to truncate all of the direct violence variables at given number of incidents, as had been done by at least two other researchers (Beaver, 1999; Song, 2005) of social work violence. There continued to be unacceptable values of skewedness and kurtosis. Since all of the methods failed to help the distributions achieve normality and acceptable skew and kurtosis, a decision was made to choose a method where the skew and kurtosis was reduced substantially by changing the deviant scores so that they were not as deviant. It should be noted that though this effort decreased the

deviancy of the skew and kurtosis, they continued to be slightly higher than a favorable skew and kurtosis. This method had the benefit of reflecting the essence of what the extreme cases reported while reducing the impact of these outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Mertler and Vannatta (2005) suggest that in sample sizes over 100, outliers may be considered as those scores that are more than 4 standard deviations from the mean. Ultimately, a decision was made to reduce the number of client violence incidents in all cases with incidences in excess of 4 standard deviations to a number that was the highest number before 4 standard deviations plus one. For each type of direct violence, a new variable was created to reflect this transformation. The adjusted types of violence variables were summed to create the adjusted total direct violence variable. These variables were used for all other analyses throughout the study, unless otherwise noted. After reducing the number of incidents as appropriate for each type of violence, the total number of direct violence incidents was 1104, with a mean of 1.86 and standard deviation of 4.66 (Appendix A, Table 9).

*Quantities of direct incidents by type of client violence.* Total numbers of incidents per type of violence were recorded (See Appendix A, Table 10). The numbers for each type of violence were divided into the total number of incidents overall. For example, for physical assault, there were 46 incidents which were divided by the 1591 total incidents previously discussed. This gave a percentage (2.9%) of total incidents that were accounted for by physical assault. This type of violence occurred the least frequently ( $M = .08$ ,  $SD = .86$ ). With a range of 0-7 incidents, threat of lawsuit comprised 5.22% ( $\Sigma = 83$ ) of the total incidents. Likewise, damage to personal and professional

property made up 5.5% ( $\Sigma = 87$ ), with incidents ranging from 0-10 ( $M = .15$ ,  $SD = .72$ ). There were 167 incidents of threats of physical harm, ranging from 0 to 10 incidents person. This made up 10.50% of the total overall incidents ( $M = .28$ ,  $SD = .90$ ). Finally, the largest category of direct incidents of violence was verbal abuse, with 1208 incidents recorded, ranging from 0 to 500. This high number of incidents made up 75.92% of all of the direct violence incidents, with a mean of 2.04 and standard deviation of 20.75.

Again, because of a few high numbers of incidents in each category of client violence, the total number of incidents, means, and standard deviations were inflated and there was a possibility that they might not accurately reflect the experience of the total population. When variables were adjusted by reducing numbers of incidents over 4  $SD$ , the percentage of verbal abuse was reduced slightly to 68.75% ( $\Sigma = 68.75$ ), while all other categories of violence had slightly higher percentages of incidents than those percentage with the non adjusted numbers. Threat of lawsuit accounted for 7.15% ( $\Sigma = 79$ ) of incidents, while damage to property accounted for 6.97% ( $\Sigma = 77$ ), so these two reversed order, but other than this, the types of incidents with adjusted variables were in the same order as with non adjusted variables. Table 10 (Appendix A) contains number of incidents, means, standard deviations, and range for the adjusted variables. The percentages of incidents accounting for each type of violence are also illustrated in Figure 3 (Appendix A).

#### *Prevalence of Indirect Client Violence towards Social Work Students*

Indirect exposure to client violence was an independent variable in the section of hypotheses that dealt with establishing fear as a mediator. Social work students were

asked to write the number of times they had heard about or witnessed five types of client violence occurring to a coworker or a fellow student during their practicum. The numbers were then summed for a total number of indirect exposures to any type of client violence.

*Prevalence rate of indirect exposures to client violence.* The majority of social work students recorded that they had either heard about and/or witnessed violent or aggressive events committed by clients toward their co-workers or fellow students. Since the number of students who responded to this series of questions ( $N = 587$ ) was almost identical to the number who responded to questions on direct occurrence of violence ( $N = 589$ ), it was possible to relate the percentages on each of the types of violence for direct and indirect violence. As the Table 11 (Appendix A) indicates, 60.2% ( $n = 361$ ) experienced violence vicariously. This was almost 20% more than those who experienced direct violence.

*Prevalence rate by types of indirect exposure to violence.* With every type of violence, indirect exposure was higher than direct experience of violence. As Table 12 (Appendix A) shows, the highest occurrence of indirect exposure was verbal abuse which occurred to 54.1% ( $n = 322$ ) of the students. Similar to the pattern of direct experience with client violence, the next highest category of indirect exposure was threat of physical harm (36.8%,  $n = 219$ ). This is two and half times the rate of direct exposure to threat of physical harm (14.1%). Indirect exposure to threat of lawsuit and physical assault were experienced by the same amount of students (23.4%,  $n = 139$ ). Indirect exposure to physical assault occurred almost 7 times more often than direct physical assault, whereas

indirect exposure to threat of lawsuit occurred 2 ½ times more than direct threat of lawsuit. Finally, 20.5% ( $n=122$ ) of the students had been indirectly exposed to personal or professional property damage.

*Total incidents of indirect exposure to client violence.* There were 4110 incidents of vicarious exposure to client violence by 361 students. Total incidents per person ranged from 0 to 151. The mean number of indirect incidents of the entire sample was 7.05( $SD = 19.97$ ). This was almost 3 times the mean of direct violence ( $M = 2.66$ ,  $SD = 21.15$ ).

As with direct incidents of violence, there were some students who recorded extreme numbers of indirect violence exposures, which caused an extreme positive skew of 9.429 and kurtosis (128.49). Since these outliers were likely to inflate the numbers of incidents and the mean number of incidents, the cases that exceeded 4 standard deviations were kept in the sample, but were reduced. This allowed them to contribute to the data, while reducing their extreme effect. With these cases reduced there were 3603 total incidents of indirect exposure to violence, with a mean of 6.18 ( $SD = 12.64$ ) and a range of 0-97 (See Appendix A, Table 13).

*Quantities of indirect client violence by type of client violence.* Social work students in the sample reported that they had heard of or witnessed more incidents of verbal abuse than any other type of violence (See Appendix A, Table 14). The total number of verbal abuse incidents was 2060, which was 50.63% of the total number of indirect incidents of violence. The mean number of incidents was 3.56 ( $SD = 11.15$ ) and incidents per person ranged from 0 to 200. The next highest number of indirect violence

incidents was threat of physical harm which ranged from 0 to 100 incidents per person. There were a total of 857 incidents, comprising 20.85% of the total indirect incidents ( $M = 5.31$ ,  $SD = 12.26$ ). The other three types of indirect exposure occurred in similar quantities. There were 425 incidents of physical assault (10.34% of total incidents,  $M = .72$ ,  $SD = 2.21$ ), with one student knowing about 24 incidents. Almost ten percent of the incidents (9.7%,  $\Sigma = 399$ ) were vicarious knowledge of damage to personal or agency property ( $M = .68$ ,  $SD = 2.75$ ) and 8.98% ( $\Sigma = 369$ ) were indirect exposure to threats of lawsuit ( $M = .63$ ,  $SD = 2.07$ , Range 0-20). After reducing the numbers of cases over 4 standard deviations, as discussed on p. 126, the percentages of each type of violence were very comparable to the percentages prior to reducing the cases. (See Table 14 and Figure 4, Appendix A).

#### *Fear of Future Violence*

*Reliability and sampling adequacy.* The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (BTS) were conducted to check for the appropriateness of a factor analysis. The KMO evaluates for the sampling adequacy which should be greater than .50 for satisfactory factor analysis to proceed. The KMO on this scale was .839. In addition, the Bartlett's test should be also significant to ensure the adequacy for factor analysis. The BTS was significant at the .000 level ( $\chi^2 = 1824.32$ ). Thus both scores indicate that there is a good factor and the factor consists of appropriate attributes. After exploratory factor analysis (see below), this scale was tested for internal consistency and had Cronbach's alpha score of .91.



*Results of exploratory factor analysis.* To test for unidimensionality of the fear of future violence scale, an exploratory factor analysis was completed. Principal components analysis was conducted using Oblimin rotation, which is recommended if there is a prior belief that the underlying factors are correlated (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). The fear construct was measured by five items (FFV1 to FFV5). The analysis retained one factor which accounted for 70.71% of the variance. The component matrix showed that all of the five items loaded onto one factor, with the lowest score being .901 (“fear of future threat of harm”) and lowest being .785 (“fear of future lawsuit”). Thus none of the factors loaded at less than .40. Additionally, communalities scores ranged from .617 to .811, thus none were below the accepted value of .50. Therefore all of the items remained in the scale for all bivariate and multivariate analyses.

*Fear of violence descriptive information.* Fear of future violence was measured by asking students if they had fear that each of the types of violence would occur in the next year and then totaling the scores in all areas for a total fear of violence score. For mean scores of each type of violence, skew, and kurtosis, see Table 15 in Appendix A. Overall, students demonstrated that they have moderate amounts of fear of future client violence. Students’ responses indicated that they had more fear of verbal abuse than other types of violence. Almost half (47.9%,  $n = 285$ ) noted that they were at least moderately afraid that this would occur to them in the next year. The next highest concern was fear of future threat of harm, with 28.5% ( $n = 170$ ) in agreement that this might occur. Nearly one quarter (23.2%,  $n = 138$ ) were fearful that they might be threatened with a lawsuit within the coming year. One hundred four (17.8%) of the

students strongly or moderately agreed that they had fear of being physically assaulted within the next year and a similar amount (16.5%,  $n = 98$ ) strongly or moderately agreed that they were fearful of damage to their property. A total of 264 students (36.2%) either strongly or moderately feared that they might experience some type of client violence in the next year.

### *Occupational Commitment*

*Reliability and sample adequacy.* The KMO test for measuring sampling adequacy resulted in an acceptable value of .88, which is greater than the cut off score of .60. Additionally the BTS was significant at the .000 level ( $\chi^2 (153) = 4819.80$ ). These scores indicate that there is a good factor and the factor consists of appropriate attributes. Therefore, it was appropriate to proceed with an exploratory factor analysis.

*Exploratory factor analysis.* To test for dimensionality of the occupational violence scales, an exploratory factor analysis was completed. Principal components analysis was conducted using Oblimin rotation with the eighteen items in the occupational commitment scale. As discussed previously, the Oblimin rotation was most appropriate to use because of prior belief that there were correlations between three first order factors. The analysis initially retained three factors which accounted for 59.38% of the variance. This raised some question about accepting only three factors because a general rule of thumb is to retain factors that account for 70% of the variance. However, the scree plot also confirmed retaining three factors. Additionally, after the rotation, the pattern matrix demonstrated a unique relationship with no overlapping among the three factors. Prior to the analysis, Cronbach's alpha was obtained to check for internal

consistency of the scales. The affective commitment (AC) subscale had a score .65, the normative commitment (NC) subscale had .74, and alpha for the third subscale, continuance commitment (CC), was .83. Thus affective commitment and normative commitment subscales have lower than the ideal reliability, though acceptable.

*Affective commitment (AC).* The affective commitment construct was measured by six items (AC1 to AC6). The principal components factor analysis showed that the communality of AC1 (“Social work is important to my self image”) was .302, which is lower than suggested .50. After dropping this item, Cronbach’s Alpha for this scale was .91. This is .26 higher than the original Alpha score, thus substantially improving the reliability of the subscale.

*Normative commitment (NC).* The normative commitment construct was measured by six items (NC1 to NC6). The exploratory factor analysis showed that lower than the suggested .50 communality was found for 2 items: NC1 (“I am in social work because of sense of loyalty to it), communality = .48 and NC6 (“I believe people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable amount of time”), communality = .42. After dropping these two items, Cronbach’s Alpha was reassessed at a level of .82. This is .11 higher than the original Alpha and substantially improves the reliability of the subscale.

*Continuance commitment (CC).* Six items (CC1 to CC6) measured the construct of continuance commitment. Exploratory factor analysis revealed that one item, CC5 (“There are pressures to keep me from changing professions), had a communality of .42, which is lower than the suggested .50. After dropping this item and recalculating the

scale, reliability was measures at .81. Though this is slight drop from the original reliability of .83, it remains an acceptable level of internal consistency.

As indicated in Table 16 (Appendix A), after adjusting the three subscales, a new principal component analysis was run to check again for dimensionalities of the occupational commitment subscales. Again, three factors were extracted. However, the three factors now accounted for 66.77% of the variance, which was closer to the 70% that is the general rule of thumb for retaining factors. Because of this and the fact that the two of the three subscales had substantially higher Cronbach's Alpha scores when recalculated, a decision was made to report scores for the recalculated subscales, with a total of four items dropped from the original occupational commitment scale. Additionally, the recalculated subscales scores will be used for all bivariate and multivariate analyses.

*Occupational commitment descriptive information.* Three subscales measured occupational commitment. The first was affective commitment, which is a type of commitment that expresses pride in the profession. In this case, it would demonstrate a desire to be a social worker. Each of five items was scored on a 5-point Likert scale with a 5 indicating that the student strongly agreed with the statement. Means, standard deviations, skew and kurtosis for each scale can be seen in Table 17 of Appendix A. The strong affective commitment to the profession of social work was striking. The mean score was 23.35 ( $SD = 2.93$ ) out of a total score of 25. Sixty percent ( $n = 356$ ) of the social work students scored a 5 on every question. For each of the following individual statements, students said that they strongly agreed: 73.0% ( $n = 432$ ) satisfied with their

career choice; 77.2% ( $n = 457$ ) proud to be in the social work profession, 80.0% ( $n = 476$ ) like being a social worker, 74.8% ( $n = 443$ ) identified with the social work profession, and 73.8 ( $n = 437$ ) enthusiastic about being a social worker.

The second type of occupational commitment was normative commitment. With this type of commitment students were asked about their level of agreement with statements that indicated that they should or ought to be committed to the social work profession. In short, they have feelings of obligation. With two items deleted from the scale, four items were left, with a maximum score of 20. The mean score was 11.69 ( $SD = 4.18$ ). In contrast with affective commitment, normative commitment had the lowest scores of the three types. Only 4.0 ( $n = 24$ ) scored a 5 on every question. With this type of commitment, students were more prone to disagree with the statements. For three of the four categories, at least two thirds of the students either disagreed or were neutral with the statements. The statements included “I feel obligated to remain in the social work profession”, “I would feel guilty if I left the social work profession,” and “Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave social work now.” Only one of the four statements received more agreement than disagreement or neutrality. It was “I feel a responsibility to the social work profession to continue.

Continuance commitment was the third type of occupational commitment. This type of commitment speaks of staying in a profession because the alternative would be too costly in every way. One has come too far to turn back now. With one item dropped from this subscale, five items remained, for a top score of 25. The mean score for continuance commitment was 16.30 ( $SD = 5.10$ ), thus continuance commitment fell

almost halfway between affective commitment and normative commitment. For each of the five statements, the largest category of responses was “moderately agree”. Students stopped short of strongly agreeing with statements. For instance, for the following two statements, students either strongly or moderately agreed: “I have put too much into the social work profession to consider changing now.” (52.2%,  $n = 321$ ) or “Changing professions now would require considerable personal sacrifice.” (45.9%,  $n = 173$ ). Overall, students conveyed a higher than a medium level of continuance commitment.

#### *Career Withdrawal Intentions*

Career withdrawal intentions were measured with three questions. The first indicated thoughts about leaving the profession, the second indicated an intention to look for a new profession, and the third indicated an intention to stay in the social work profession for an extended time. Disagreement with the first and second statements indicated a stronger likelihood of staying in the profession whereas disagreement with the third statement indicated a high likelihood of leaving. The third item was reverse scored before the items were totaled. Therefore, lower scores on this scale indicate low intentions to seek another profession. With 5 point Likert questions, the maximum score on this scale is 15 and the minimum is 3. The mean score on this scale was 4.40 ( $SD = 2.49$ ), indicating very low levels of career withdrawal intentions. Mean scores of the individual items in the scale can be seen in Table 18 (Appendix A). Three hundred seventy seven (63.4%) scored a one on each item, indicating the maximum insistence on staying in the social work profession. In contrast, 18 students (3%) scored in the top third of scores, indicating plans to leave the profession.

### *Findings Related to Prevalence of Client Violence Hypotheses*

The first section of hypothesis testing addresses the prevalence of client violence as affected by ten independent variables or series of variables. In all of these hypotheses, the dependent variables are the five types of violence which are physical assault, threat of physical harm, verbal abuse, threat of lawsuit, and property damage. The last dependent variable is a sum of the five types of direct violence.

The initial findings from each hypothesis analysis are reported according to commonly accepted values for probability levels. That is, findings that are at the .05 and .01 probability levels are reported as trending towards significance. Since numerous hypotheses were investigated, Bonferroni adjustments were warranted (Montcalm & Royse, 2002). Bonferroni procedures typically require the researcher to divide the .05 probability level by the number of statistical tests that are conducted. Because there were 13 hypotheses tested in this study, .05 was divided by 13, yielding a new probability level of .004 required to declare statistical significance.

#### *Hypothesis 1-1*

Male social work students will experience more of every type of client violence than female students.

Male social worker students experienced direct violence at a higher rate than females in every type of client violence. In fact, for every type of violence, the rate of male social work students experiencing direct client violence was almost twice the rate of female social work students. For the overall prevalence rate during practicum, 39.3% ( $n = 205$ ) of the female students encountered violence, whereas 61.6% ( $n = 42$ ) of the male students were directly affected by client violence. This was a significantly higher

rate of violence for males than females,  $\chi^2(1) = 12.50, p < .001, V = .15$ . Mantel-Haenszel common odds ratio estimate is 2.498, indicating that males are 2 ½ times more likely to encounter direct client violence. Results of the chi square analyses that yielded the rates of violence for each type of violence can be viewed in Table 19 (Appendix A).

Males and females were compared as to means of incidence and total incidents. Males had a higher mean of total incidents of 4.35 ( $SD = 8.81$ ) whereas females had a mean of 1.55 ( $SD = 3.70$ ). This is portrayed on a chart in Figure 5 (Appendix A). For every type of violence, males had a higher mean of incidents. Females experienced a total of 807 incidents, accounting for 73.1% of the total of incidents, whereas males encountered 296 incidents, comprising 26.8% of all the incidents. The number of incidents was again noticeably higher for females in the area of physical assault, where they experienced 20 incidents, versus males' experience of 8 incidents.

T-tests for independent samples were used to check for differences in males' and females' direct encounters with violence. The tests showed a probability level less than .05 for direct verbal abuse,  $t(69.65) = -2.20, p = .031, d = .54$  with males experiencing more verbal abuse than females (Males:  $M = 3.09, SD = 7.57$ , Females:  $M = 1.05, SD = 2.93$ ). An additional finding at less than the .05 probability level was found for the total of direct violence incidents. Males experienced more total violence than females,  $t(70.11) = -2.45, p = .017, d = .63$ , (Males:  $M = 4.32, SD = 8.27$ , Females:  $M = 1.59, SD = 3.91$ ). These two findings approached significance.

After the Bonferroni adjustment was completed, statistical significance was found for threats of physical harm,  $t(71.95) = -3.24, p = .002, d = .64$ , with males ( $M = .69$ ,



$SD = 1.21$ ) experiencing more threats than females ( $M = .21$ ,  $SD = .66$ ). The  $t$ -tests did not show a statistically significant difference at the .004 level between males' and females' experiences with physical assault, verbal abuse, threat of lawsuit, damage to property, or total of client violence. Full results of the  $t$ -tests are given in Table 20 of Appendix A.

Hypothesis 1-1 is accepted for the following types of violence:

Direct threatened physical harm

Hypothesis 1-1 is rejected for the following types of violence:

Direct physical assault

Direct verbal abuse

Direct threatened lawsuit

Direct damage to property

Total direct client violence

#### *Hypothesis 1-2*

Younger social work students will experience more of every type of client violence than older social work students.

To study prevalence of client violence by age, younger students were defined as traditional aged students. Since it was found that significantly more BSW students are aged 24 and under and MSW students are significantly more likely to be aged 25-30, these two categories of age were used separately to demonstrate traditional aged students. All students over 30 were in the third group. When direct violence incidents are summed across all categories of violence, those students who are aged 25-30 have the highest rate of violence (45.7%,  $n = 74$ ), with 41.8% ( $n = 119$ ) of students 31 and older experiencing direct violence, and students 24 and under having the lowest rate of violence, at 37.9%

( $n = 55$ ). Students aged 25-30 had the highest rate of violence for threat of physical harm, verbal abuse, and threat of lawsuits. The rate of physical assault was highest for those 24 and under, whereas property damage occurred most often to those who were 31 and over. Results of the chi square tests that yielded these rates of violence are listed in Table 21 (Appendix A).

An ANOVA was performed to further assess the differences between these three groups. As indicated in Table 22 (Appendix A), the only type of violence that approached significance was threat of lawsuit,  $F(2/589) = 4.007$ ,  $p = .019$ ,  $\eta^2 = .013$ . LSD post hoc tests indicate that more students in the 25-30 age range ( $M = .22$ ,  $SD = .64$ ) experienced threat of lawsuit than students 31 and over ( $M = .11$ ,  $SD = .45$ ) and students aged 24 and under ( $M = .08$ ,  $SD = .31$ ).

Additional indicators of the frequency of violence were the number of incidents per age group and mean number of incidents per group. For this measurement the first two categories of age remained the same, but in order to better discriminate the experiences of those 31 and over, this group was divided into three groups: those 31-40, 41-50 and 51 and over. The highest category of summed direct violence incidents was in the 25-30 ( $n = 162$ ) group, with 386 incidents totaling 34.1% of the total incidents of violence. The mean of the 25-30 group ( $M = 2.38$ ,  $SD = 5.87$ ) was the same as the 41-50 group ( $M = 2.38$ ,  $SD = 7.10$ ). Total incidents in the 41-50 group was 202, occurring to 85 people. The lowest mean of incidents ( $M = 1.36$ ,  $SD = 2.87$ ) occurred in the 24 and under group ( $n = 145$ ), with a total of 198 incidents occurring.

A chart was constructed to demonstrate the differences in means of client violence incidents between those under 25, those 25-30, and those over 30. As shown, the students in the age 25-30 group experienced the highest mean of violence (Appendix A, Figure 6).

The hypothesis was tested through the computation of the correlation between age and incidents of violence. There was no statistical significance for any type of violence. Hypothesis 1-2 is rejected for every type of violence when measuring age continuously.

### *Hypothesis 1-3*

Less experienced social work students will experience more of every type of client violence than social work students with more paid social work experience.

Rates of violence were calculated for each type of violence per years of experience. The experience variable had missing data substituted with the series mean. Additionally, per boxplots, all cases with over 10 years of experience were outliers that could affect the analysis, so cases with over 10 years experience were eliminated from the analyses. to discover rate of violence, experience was grouped by years, with the first group having no experience, the second group having 1-2 years, the third 3-5 years, and the fourth 6-10 years. As indicated in Table 23 (Appendix A), those students having 3-5 years of experience had the highest rate of violence (41.5%,  $n = 34$ ). Rates of violence decreased progressively as years of experience decreased. Those with no experience ( $n = 118$ ) and 1-2 years of experience ( $n = 36$ ) had a client violence rate of 40.4%.

Client violence per experience level was additionally measured by comparing means and numbers of incidents. Students with 3-5 years of experience ( $n = 66$ ) had the highest mean of incidents ( $M = 2.85$ ,  $SD = 7.24$ ), experiencing a range of 0 to 57 incidents for a total of 234, or 25.7% of the total incidents. Students with no experience

( $n = 292$ ) had the lowest mean of incidents ( $M = 1.29$ ,  $SD = 2.66$ ). This group experienced 376 incidents which accounted for 35.2% of all the incidents. This is portrayed graphically in Figure 7 (Appendix A).

Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to assess the relationship between years of experience and every type of direct incidents of violence. As seen in Table 24 (Appendix A), experience was found to be positively related to verbal abuse ( $r = .087$ ,  $p = .04$ ) and the sum of direct client violence ( $r = .09$ ,  $p = .03$ ), with probability levels of less than .05 trending toward significance. Years of experience did not approach significance with any other type of violence.

To further analyze if specific levels of experience contribute to client violence, one way ANOVA tests were performed to check for significant differences in incidents of violence among the four levels of experience. Table 24 (Appendix A) shows that those students who had 3-5 years of experience ( $M = 2.07$ ,  $SD = 6.22$ ) had more verbal abuse than those with no experience ( $M = .88$ ,  $SD = 1.87$ ),  $F(4/525) = 3.01$ ,  $p = .03$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ , with the probability level of  $< .05$  approaching significance. Similarly, students with 3-5 years' experience ( $M = 2.85$ ,  $SD = 7.24$ ) had more total violence than students with no experience ( $M = 1.29$ ,  $SD = 2.26$ ),  $F(4/525) = 3.45$ ,  $p = .02$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ . After the Bonferroni procedure, there were no statistically significant differences between the experience groups.

To further explore characteristics that may be associated with having 3-5 years' experience, further chi square analyses were conducted. Experience and practice settings were found to be significantly associated,  $\chi^2(30, N = 525) = 49.07$ ,  $p = .02$ . With 3-5

years experience, the highest percentages of students were in schools (28.6%,  $n = 12$ ), medical/health care settings (24.6%,  $n = 15$ ), alcohol/substance abuse settings (20%,  $n = 7$ ), and mental health psychiatric settings (19.6%,  $n = 18$ ). Additionally students' degree program was strongly significantly related to years of experience,  $\chi^2 (3, N = 529) = 1.01, p < .001, V = .44$ . Almost 21% ( $n = 63$ ) of MSW students had 3-5 years experience versus 7.9% ( $n = 18$ ) of BSW students. Experience categories were also strongly and significantly related to age categories,  $\chi^2 (6, N = 532) = 79.29, p < .001, V = .27$ , with those students who are aged 25-30 (27%,  $n = 43$ ) being much more likely to have 3-5 years experience than students under the age of 25 (4.3%,  $n = 6$ ) or students over the age of 30 (14.5%,  $n = 34$ ). Though no statistical significance was found, a substantially higher percentage of males (22.8%,  $n = 13$ ) had 3-5 years experience than females (14.8%,  $n = 70$ ). Also, higher percentages of Asians, Native Americans, Black students, and students of mixed heritage had 3-5 years experience than White students. Additionally, the largest percentage of those making the most home visits and working the most evening hours had 3-5 years' experience.

Hypothesis 1-3 is rejected for every type of client violence.

#### *Hypothesis 1-4*

There will be no difference in exposure to all types of client violence by students of various ethnicities/racial backgrounds.

The occurrence of client violence among social work students in the sample was analyzed to determine the rates per student race. The highest rates of total violence were all with non-White ethnicity groups. The highest was 63% ( $n = 12$ ) in the mixed heritage group, followed by 60.0% ( $n = 3$ ) of Asian/Pacific Islanders, and 53.8 ( $n = 7$ ) of Native

Americans. This contrasted with the 40.9% ( $n = 174$ ) Whites, 40.8% ( $n = 40$ ) Blacks, and 36% ( $n = 9$ ) Latinos/Hispanics. This pattern was consistent for all types of violence, as is indicated in Table 26 (Appendix A). This table displays the chi square analyses results that yielded the client rates for each type of violence. When non-White students other than Black students are clustered together in one group, they still have the highest rate of violence (49.3%,  $n = 34$ ).

Figure 7 (Appendix A) shows that Native American social work students had the highest mean number of client violence incidents ( $M = 7.69$ ,  $SD = 16.47$ ). Students with mixed heritage had the next highest mean of 3.16 ( $SD = 3.92$ ), followed by Asian students ( $M = 2.20$ ,  $SD = 3.80$ ). The students with the least mean of incidents were Latino/Hispanic with a mean of 1.24 ( $SD = 2.01$ ). Black and White students had a similar mean number of incidents with means of 1.68( $SD = 3.67$ ) and 1.72 ( $SD = 4.15$ ) respectively. Again, since the minority groups with small representation made up the groups with highest means, all non-White students except Black students were combined into a group to measure them with White and Black students. Even when combining the groups ( $n = 64$ ), they had a mean of 2.98 ( $SD = 7.76$ ) incidents, which was a higher mean than Black students or White students.

The largest percentage of incidents occurred to White social work students, who experienced 66.4% ( $\Sigma = 733$ ) of the total incidents. This was followed by non-Whites other than Black with 18.7% ( $\Sigma = 206$ ), then Black students, who had 165 incidents (14.9%).

An ANOVA test was used to test the hypothesis. Race/ethnicity groups were compared regarding their encounters with violence. Results showed that the relationship between damage to personal and professional property and the ethnicity of students trended toward significance,  $F(5/589) = 2.59, p = .025, \eta^2 = .02$ . According to LSD post hoc tests, property damage occurred more often to students with mixed heritage than Black students, Latino students, or White students. Furthermore, Native American respondents had more property damage incidents than Black respondents.

After the Bonferroni adjustments, results indicated that the ethnicity of the students and incidents of violence were significantly related for each of the following types of violence: verbal abuse,  $F(5/579) = 5.426, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$ ; threat of lawsuit,  $F(5/579) = 3.54, p = .004, \eta^2 = .03$ ; and total of direct violence,  $F(5/579) = 4.26, p = .001, \eta^2 = .06$ . The results of all of the ANOVA tests concerning student ethnicity are displayed in Table 27 (Appendix A). Further LSD post hoc tests were computed to determine which groups are significantly different. For verbal abuse, Native Americans had a significantly higher mean of violence than all other groups. Social work students with mixed heritage had significantly more threats of lawsuits than all other groups except Asians. Finally, for the total number of direct violence incidents, Native American students experienced significantly more client violence than every other ethnic group except Asians.

Because Native American students and students of mixed ethnic heritage were found to experience significantly more of various types of client violence, further analyses were completed to discover more about other characteristics that might be

related to student race. Two factors were found to be significantly related to student race. Age was the first,  $\chi^2 (10, N = 588) = 28.99, p = .001, V = .167$ . A majority (76.9%,  $n = 10$ ) of Native American students were over the age 30, versus 15.4% ( $n = 2$ ) who were aged 25-30, and 7.7% ( $n = 2$ ) who were under the age of 25. More than half of students (57.1%,  $n = 12$ ) with mixed ethnic heritage were found to be over 30, compared to 23.8% ( $n = 5$ ) aged 25-30, and 19.0% ( $n = 4$ ) under the age of 25. Comparatively, less White students were over the age of 30 (41.9%,  $n = 178$ ) and more were under the age of 30. The second statistically significant finding was that Native American students (23.1%,  $n = 3$ ) were more likely to work 51-75% evening hours than students of all other races, most particularly White students (5.2%,  $n = 22$ ),  $\chi^2 (20, N = 584) = 31.51, p = .049, V = .116$ . Though none of the other analyses were statistically significant, it was found that a higher percentage of males (4.5%) were Native American, versus 1.9% of females who were Native American. Additionally, a higher percentage of BSW students (2.9%) were Native American, compared to 1.8% of MSW students who were Native American. Finally, higher percentages of students with mixed heritage were in alcohol/substance abuse settings (21.1%) and children/youth/child protection settings (21.1%). Native American students were more commonly in medical/health settings, alcohol/substance abuse settings, child/youth/child protection, schools, and mental health settings, with 15.4% in each setting.



Hypothesis 1-4 is accepted for all racial minority groups for the following types of violence:

Physical Assault

Threat of physical harm

Damage to personal and professional property

Hypothesis 1-4 is rejected for the following types of violence per racial/ethnic group:

Verbal abuse

Native Americans

Threat of lawsuit

Mixed heritage

Total direct violence

Native Americans

#### *Hypothesis 1-5*

BSW social work students will experience more of every type of client violence than MSW students.

MSW students (24.6%,  $n = 144$ ) experienced a higher rate of violence than BSW students (17.4%,  $n = 102$ ). Additionally MSW students experienced a higher rate of threats of lawsuit than the BSW students,  $\chi^2 (1) = 4.431, p = .035, V = .02$ , with this probability level approaching significance. The Mantel-Henszel common odds ratio is 1.902, meaning that MSW students are almost two times more likely to experience threats of lawsuit than BSW students. MSW students additionally experience higher rates of verbal abuse and threats of physical harm, while BSW students experience a higher

rate of physical assault and property damage. The results of all the chi square analyses that yielded rates of violence are displayed in Table 28 (Appendix A).

Comparison of the means of incidents revealed that MSW students experienced a higher mean of violent incidents ( $M = 2.20$ ,  $SD = 5.89$ ) than BSW students ( $M = 1.42$ ,  $SD = 3.23$ ). BSW students recorded a total of 370 incidents, ranging from 0 to 31 incidents per person and accounting for 32.8% of the total incidents. MSW students recorded more than twice the number ( $\Sigma = 757$ ) of incidents that BSW students did. Number of incidents per person ranged from 0 to 62 and totaled 67.2% of the total incidents. This is shown in a chart form in Figure 8 (Appendix A).

A  $t$ -test was computed to test the hypothesis, looking for significant differences in the mean score of MSW and BSW students. After the Bonferroni adjustment, it was found that MSW students experienced significantly more threats of physical harm than BSW students,  $t(535.70) = -2.77$ ,  $p = .004$ ,  $d = .22$ , (BSW:  $M = .17$ ,  $SD = .98$ , MSW:  $M = .33$ ,  $SD = .98$ ). Additionally, the total direct violence incidents were higher for MSW students ( $M = 2.20$ ,  $SD = 5.57$ ) than BSW students ( $M = 1.42$ ,  $SD = 3.02$ ),  $t(547.72) = -1.96$ ,  $p = .031$ ,  $d = .17$ , with the probability level below .05 approaching significance. Verbal abuse also approached significance at the .05 level,  $t(532.82) = -1.94$ ,  $p = .053$ ,  $d = .10$ , with MSW students experiencing more verbal abuse ( $M = 1.52$ ,  $SD = 4.60$ ) than BSW students ( $M = .96$ ,  $SD = 2.39$ ). No other type of violence trended toward statistically significant findings. All  $t$ -tests results are shown in Table 29 (Appendix A).

Hypothesis 1-5 is rejected for every type of type of violence.

### *Hypothesis 1-6*

There will be a significant difference in numbers of client violence incidents occurring to social work students according to the place of social work practice (home visit, office, other).

For each type of violence, respondents were asked to indicate where the most recent incident occurred. The choices of places were home visit, office and “other”. As noted in Table 30 (Appendix A), social work students reported the highest rate of physical assault in “other” places (47.1%,  $n = 8$ ). The other four types of violence occurred at highest rates in an office setting. A little more than 54% ( $n = 44$ ) of threats of physical harm, 51.4% ( $n = 109$ ) of verbal abuse, 58.8% ( $n = 30$ ) of threats of lawsuit, and 70.3% ( $n = 26$ ) of damage to personal or professional property were all reported in an office. For these four types of violence the rates of violence in an office setting was more than twice the rate in home visits or other places. When all of the places are summed across all types of violence, the rate of most recent violent incidents taking place in an office was 54.43% ( $n = 148$ ), with an additional 23.36% ( $n = 64$ ) taking place at home visits, and 22.62% ( $n = 62$ ) taking place in other places.

To calculate the total number of incidents per place of violence, the numbers of most recent violent incidents were summed for the place that the violence occurred. It was necessary to create a new variable for each place of violence category (home visit, office, and “other”), as the SPSS program was not capable of creating one variable in which data was summed for each of three categories. Once the three places of violence variables were calculated the data was then manually summed across the three variables to get a total amount of incidents and to calculate percent of recent incidents that

occurred at each place. There were 274 students who recounted 416 recent incidents in all of the categories of violence. In other words, 274 students recorded that they had a recent incident of at least one type of violence. The other 143 had experienced a recent incident of 2 or more types of violence. One hundred eighty four students recalled 227 incidents that had occurred in an office setting, accounting for 72.15% of all incidents reported and a mean of 1.53( $SD = .73$ ) incidents. Students recounted 64 total recent incidents that occurred at home visits, which made up 23.35% of the total incidents. The mean of incidents that occurred at home visits was 1.47 ( $SD = .69$ ). Similarly, 62 students reported experiencing 96 incidents at places other than an office or home visit setting. The mean of incidents occurring at other places was 1.55 ( $SD = .78$ ).

The wording of the questions about place of violence was such that the students recorded only the place for the most recent incident of a particular type of violence. With each student listing one incident per type of violence, there was no variability in responses. Because of this only descriptive analysis could be conducted for the place of client violence of each type of violence. This meant that it was not possible to use inferential statistics to analyze the data using the variables that were initially designed to compare the place of client violence.

Though the hypothesis could not be directly explored, a related question was analyzed with an ANOVA test to determine if social work students who make more home visits experience a higher mean number of violent incidents. The groupings of home visits were 1-5 home visits made during practicum, 6-10 visits made, and 11 or more

home visits. As Table 31 (Appendix A) suggests, threats of lawsuit occur more often when students make 11 or more home visits,  $F(2/313) = 4.57, p = .011$ ,  $\eta^2 = .03$ , ( $M = .25, SD = .70$ ) compared to those making 1-5 visits ( $M = .06, SD = .24$ ) or those making 6-10 visits ( $M = .07, SD = .33$ ). Total incidents of client violence were also higher for those students who made more home visits,  $F(2/313) = 3.646, p = .027$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ . The same pattern existed. Of those who make home visits, groups of students who make increased numbers of visits experience higher total incidents of violence. For both of these types of violence variables, the findings trended toward significance. However, after the Bonferroni adjustments, none of the types of violence were significantly related to making increased home visits.

Hypothesis 1-6 could be neither accepted nor rejected for any type of client violence.

#### *Hypothesis 1-7*

There will be a significant difference in numbers of client violence incidents occurring to social work students according to the time of day.

To address this hypothesis, students were asked to check what time of day their most recent incident of violence had occurred for each type of violence. If they had not experienced that type of violence, they marked “not applicable”. Rates of violence were calculated for each type of violence as to the time of day that the most recent incident had taken place. Rates of violence per time of day are reflected in Table 32 (Appendix A) Category choices for time of day were daytime hours (8 a.m.-5 p.m.), evening hours (5p.m.-12a.m.), or early morning hours (12a.m.-8a.m.). Those students who had not experienced violence were omitted from this analysis. For every type of violence, the largest percentage of violence had by far occurred during the daytime hours. The

percentages of violence in the daytime ranged from 71.4% ( $n = 25$ ) of the property damage to 82.4% ( $n = 42$ ) of the threatened lawsuits. Violence rates in the early morning hours ranged from 0% of physical assaults to 3.9% ( $n = 2$ ) of threatened lawsuits. The highest rate of violence in the evening hours occurred with verbal abuse (26.5%,  $n = 56$ ). Evening violence rates for other types of violence, in descending order, were: 25.7% ( $n = 9$ ) of property damage, 24.4% ( $n = 19$ ) of threatened harm, 23.5% ( $n = 5$ ) of physical assaults and 13.7% ( $n = 7$ ) of threatened lawsuits.

To calculate the total number of incidents per time of day, the numbers of most recent violent incidents were summed for the time of day in which incidents were reported to occur. It was necessary to create a new variable for each time of day category (daytime, evening, and early morning), as the SPSS program was not capable of creating one variable in which data was summed for each of three categories that are contained within one variable. Once the three times of day variables were calculated the data was then manually summed across the three variables to get a total amount of incidents and to calculate percent of recent incidents that occurred at each time of day. There were 264 students who recounted 416 recent incidents in all of the categories of violence. In other words, 264 students recorded that they had a recent incident of at least one type of violence. The other 152 had experienced a recent incident of 2 or more types of violence. One hundred eighty four students recalled 298 incidents that had occurred in the daytime, accounting for 72.15% of all incidents reported and a mean of 1.62 incidents. Students recounted 69 total recent incidents the evening hours, which made up 24.69% of the total

incidents. The mean of incidents in the evening hours was 1.48 ( $SD = .76$ ).

Comparatively, the rate of violence that occurred in the early morning hours (4.16%,  $n = 11$ ) was more than 6 times less than violence in the evening hours and less than 17 times the violence in the daytime.

The wording of the questions about time of day of violence was such that the students recorded only the time of day for the most recent incident of a particular type of violence. Because of this only descriptive analysis could be conducted for the time of day of each of the types of violence. This meant that it was not possible to use inferential statistics to analyze the data using the variables that were initially designed to compare the time of day of incidents.

Though it was not possible to inferentially compare times of day of most recent client violence per type of violence using the time of violence variables, another item in the questionnaire allowed a limited analysis of time of day of violence. This question asked the percentage of time that the student worked during evening hours. It should be noted that for this question evening hours were not specifically defined. There were five possible categories: no practicum hours completed during evening hours; 1-25% of practicum hours during evening hours, 26-50% in evening hours, 51-75% during evening hours, and 76-100% during evening hours. Though this question did not directly address the hypothesis, it indirectly addressed the premise of the hypothesis because of the implications of the data. For example, if a student worked 1-25% of their practicum hours during evening hours, it was implied that they worked 26-100% of their hours during hours other than evening hours. As can be seen in Table 33 (Appendix A), using this

variable, the rates of violence were very similar regardless of the amount of evening hours the students worked. Those who worked 76-100% of their time during evening hours had the lowest rate (36.7%,  $n = 11$ ) of summed direct violence. The next lowest rate of violence (38.1%,  $n = 75$ ) was among those students who worked no evening hours. The highest rate of violence, 46.5% ( $n = 20$ ), was among students who worked 51-75% of their practicum hours during the evening. For every type of violence, slightly different patterns existed. Those students who worked 51-75% evening hours had the highest rates of physical assault, verbal abuse and property damage, while those that worked 26-50% evening hours had highest rates of threatened physical harm. Threats of lawsuit were more prevalent for students working 76-100% of time in evening hours.

ANOVA tests were performed to determine if each type of violence was more likely to take place with groups of students who worked no practicum hours in the evening, 1-25% of their practicum hours in the evening hours, 26-50% in evening hours, 51-75% in evening hours or 76-100% of their time in the evening. Only one type of violence, physical assault, had a probability level that was barely at the  $p < .05$  level. Students who worked 51-75% evening hours ( $M = .16$ ,  $SD = .57$ ) experienced more physical assaults than those working no evening hours ( $M = .04$ ,  $SD = .23$ ), those working 1-25% evening hours ( $M = .05$ ,  $SD = .28$ ), those working 26-50% evening hours ( $M = .02$ ,  $SD = .12$ ) and those working 76-100% evening hours (0%),  $F(4/583) = 2.34$ ,  $p = .054$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ .



After Bonferroni adjustment, there were no statistically significant findings for any types of violence. Results of all ANOVA tests for types of violence per percentage of evening hours worked can be seen in Table 34 in Appendix A.

Hypothesis 7 is rejected for every type of violence

#### *Hypothesis 1-8*

There will be a significant difference in numbers of client violence incidents occurring to social work students according to the practice setting.

Social work students at three practice settings had a total violence rate over fifty percent. Students in psychiatric/ mental health practice settings had a 54.5% ( $n = 15$ ) rate of violence, those in developmental disabilities had a 53.3% ( $n = 8$ ) rate of violence and those in alcohol and substance abuse services had a 52.5% ( $n = 22$ ) rate. The lowest rate of violence (20.5%,  $n = 8$ ) was in the community planning/community organizing practice settings. The chi square results on the rates of violence per type of violence in practice settings are reflected in Table 35 in Appendix A.

There were differing rates of violence in practice settings depending on the types of violence. For physical assault, the highest rate of violence was in developmental disabilities (13.3%,  $n = 2$ ), followed by services to the aged (7.3%,  $n = 3$ ), and alcohol/substance abuse services (7.1%,  $n = 3$ ). Threatened physical harm occurred to 23% ( $n = 23$ ) of the students in mental health services. Students in developmental disabilities followed closely with a 20% ( $n = 3$ ) rate and school social work students had a similar rate of 19.6% ( $n = 9$ ). Verbal abuse occurred to the most students in alcohol/substance abuse service (50%,  $n = 21$ ), mental health services (47%,  $n = 47$ ), and developmental disabilities services (46.7%,  $n = 7$ ). Two practice settings had rates of

threatened lawsuits over 10%. They were alcohol/substance abuse services (16.7%,  $n = 7$ ) and children and youth/child protective services (14.4%,  $n = 15$ ). Property damage occurred to the most students in alcohol/substance abuse services (14.3%,  $n = 6$ ) and mental health services (14%,  $n = 14$ ).

Five practice settings had a mean of total client violence exceeding 2.0. Criminal justice students had the highest mean of violent incidents ( $M = 3.21$ ,  $SD = 9.46$ ). The next four settings clustered near the same mean: school social work students had a mean of 2.66 ( $SD = 8.73$ ); developmental disabilities social work students had a mean of 2.60 ( $SD = 4.46$ ); mental health service students had a mean of 2.58 ( $SD = 4.36$ ); and alcohol/substance abuse student workers had a mean of 2.57 ( $SD = 5.54$ ) incidents. Figure 10 (Appendix A) depicts the means of total violence for each practice setting. For these five areas, the percentage of total incidents was not proportionate to the percentage of students who worked in the practice settings. For instance, 17.2% of students served in mental health settings, but they encountered 23.8% of the total amount of incidents. The highest mean of incidents for specific types of violence occurred in some of the practice settings already mentioned. Physical assault ( $M = .27$ ,  $SD = .80$ ) and threats of harm ( $M = .47$ ,  $SD = 1.30$ ) occurred most frequently in developmental disabilities settings. Verbal abuse ( $M = 2.60$ ,  $SD = 8.41$ ) and property damage ( $M = .24$ ,  $SD = .91$ ) occurred most often in criminal justice settings. The highest mean of threatened lawsuits was in alcohol/substance abuse settings.

ANOVA tests were used to test this research question. As Table 36 (Appendix A) indicates, one finding, practice setting and exposure to threatened lawsuit, trended

towards significance at the .05 probability level,  $F(10/574) = 1.88, p = .046, \eta^2 = .03$ .

LSD post hoc tests indicated that the mean of incidents was higher in alcohol/substance abuse services ( $M = .38, SD = .96$ ) than every other practice setting in the study.

A chi square test was also used to answer the research question. The analysis of the sum of direct violence per practice setting approached significance at the .05 probability level,  $\chi^2(10) = 19.17, p = .038, V = .18$ . After Bonferroni adjustments were made, no statistical significance was found for any type of violence per practice setting. Hypothesis 1-8 is rejected for every type of client violence.

#### *Hypothesis 1-9*

There will be a significant difference in numbers of client violence incidents occurring to social work students according to the race/ethnicity match between the student and the field educator.

A preliminary ANOVA test explored whether field educators of any race/ethnicity supervised students who experienced more violence of any type. There were no statistically significant results for this question. In other words, the race of the field educator did not make any significant difference in the amount of client violence experienced by the student.

To more specifically address the question of whether the race match between the field educator and student affects the student's exposure to violence, a variable was created with four categories. The first had student and field educator dyads that were matched in race/ethnicity. The second had White students and non-White field educator pairs, while the third category was made up of dyads where the student was non-White and the field educator was White. The final category combined students and field

educators from unmatched minority groups. The fourth group, unmatched minority dyads, incurred the highest rates of violence in every category (See Appendix A, Table 37). This was a small category ( $n = 13$ ), so the percentages represent a small number of students. The lowest rate of physical assault was experienced by both the matched dyads (2.6%,  $n = 9$ ) and the non-White student/White field educator dyads (2.6%,  $n = 4$ ). Twenty five percent ( $n = 3$ ) of the students in unmatched minority dyads experienced threatened physical harm, whereas students from matched race dyads had the next highest rate of threatened harm (14.7%,  $n = 50$ ). Students from unmatched minority dyads had the highest rate of verbal abuse (50%,  $n = 6$ ) whereas the next lowest group had a rate 10% less than this. Two (16.7%) of minority unmatched supervision dyads experienced threat of lawsuit, which was the highest rate of threat of lawsuit among the four groups. With property damage, students from mixed minority dyads encountered at least 3 times the amount as any other group. In total, students who were a part of mixed minority supervision dyads experienced a rate of 53.4% ( $n = 8$ ) exposure to violence.

When the three unmatched race supervision categories were combined to compare matched groups with unmatched groups, the matched groups had higher rates of violence in every type of violence except physical assault. Generally, the rates of the matched race dyads were within two percentage points of the unmatched dyads.

The means of client violence incidents were compared across students in the four different groups. Students from the mixed minority dyads had the highest mean of incidents of summed violence, with a mean of 2.76 ( $SD = 3.96$ ). The next highest group was students in matched race supervision dyads, with a mean of 1.83 incidents

( $SD = 4.41$ ). The lowest means of total incidents of violence were with the other two groups: students who were White with non-White field educators ( $M = 1.20$ ,  $SD = 2.43$ ) and students who were non-White with White field educators ( $M = 1.34$ ,  $SD = 2.28$ ). The means of total violence per match of student/field educator race can be found in Figure 11 (Appendix A). Supervision dyads where the student and field educator were of differing minorities had the highest mean of incidents for every type of client violence. When the three unmatched race dyads were combined to compare means of incidences with matched dyads, students from matched race supervision dyads had higher means of threatened harm and verbal abuse, whereas students from the unmatched groups had higher mean of physical assault, threats of lawsuits, and property damage.

to test the hypothesis, one way ANOVA tests were calculated to consider differences between the four groups as to incidents of violence. Results of the analyses are presented in Table 38 (Appendix A). After Bonferroni adjustments, the match of race between student and field educator and incidents of property damage in the sample were significantly related,  $F(3/501) = 4.69$ ,  $p = .003$ ,  $\eta^2 = .000$ . LSD post hoc tests indicated property damage was experienced by significantly more students in mixed minority race supervision dyads ( $M = .69$ ,  $SD = 1.49$ ) than students with matched race supervision dyads ( $M = .13$ ,  $SD = .55$ ), White students with non-White supervisors ( $M = .13$ ,  $SD = .55$ ), and non-White students with White supervisors ( $M = .05$ ,  $SD = .36$ ).

Hypothesis 1-9 is accepted for the following circumstance:

Students who are in mixed minority supervision dyads who encounter property damage.

Hypothesis 1-9 is rejected for all other types of violence.

### *Hypothesis 1-10*

Social work students who have more safety training offered by their social work program will experience less of every type of client violence than social work students who have had less safety training in their social work program.

This hypothesis was addressed using information about the training that students had received in field seminar, social work practice classes, and the field agency. In addition a fourth category of data concerned training content which students had received in places other than the social work program. Initial analyses calculated the rate of violence for each type of violence for each training venue and the mean of incidents for each type of violence per training venue. Overall, the rate of violence increased as training content increased.

*Rate of violence per training in social work classes.* The rate of violence for total violence incidents was highest for those who had 11-15 content areas of 19 covered in their social work practice classes (43.3%,  $n = 49$ ). The lowest rate of violence was 28.2% ( $n = 12$ ) for students who had no training in their social work classes. For physical assault, the highest percentage (4.3%,  $n = 8$ ) of incidents was in students with 1-5 training content areas covered in social work classes. The highest rate of threats of physical harm occurred (15.5%,  $n = 29$ ) with students with 1-5 training content areas and 11-15 content areas. Verbal abuse, threat of lawsuit and property damage all occurred at the highest rate in students with 11-15 content areas in practice classes.

The means of incidents were compared between the groups having different amounts of training. For the sum of client violence incidents, those who had 11-15 safety training areas covered in practice classes had the highest mean ( $M = 2.37$ ,  $SD = 6.41$ ).

Those with 16-19 content areas had slightly lower mean of incidents. The lowest mean of incidents ( $M = 1.12$ ,  $SD = 2.32$ ) was among those students who had no safety training in social work practice classes.

*Rate of violence per training in field seminar.* In field seminar those with the most training, 16-19 content areas (out of 19), had the highest rate of totaled violence incidents (55%,  $n = 11$ ). Again, the group with the lowest rate was students who received no safety training in field seminar. Threats of physical harm and property damage occurred to the most students in the 11-15 training content group. Verbal abuse occurred at the highest rate with students with the most training (50%,  $n = 10$ ). Only physical assault and threats of lawsuits occurred at highest rates to students with less training hours. Physical assault occurred at the highest rate (3.7%,  $n = 7$ ) to students with no training in field seminar and threats of lawsuits happened at the top rate (19.0%,  $n = 8$ ) with students who had 6-10 training content areas covered in field seminar.

When means of incidents were compared, social work students had the highest mean of incidents ( $M = 2.83$ ,  $SD = 6.80$ ) when they had 11-15 safety content areas in field seminar. The lowest mean of violence incidents was with students who had no safety training in field seminar ( $M = 1.52$ ,  $SD = 3.24$ ).

*Rate of client violence per training at the field agency.* Social work students who received no training at their agency had the lowest rate of client violence (33.8%,  $n = 25$ ). As content areas of safety training increased the total violence rate increased, with a top rate (51.6%,  $n = 16$ ) in the group with 16-19 content areas covered in training. Physical assault and verbal abuse occurred at highest rates to students who had 16-19 safety

training content areas at their field agencies. Threats of harm, threats of lawsuit and property damage occurred at highest rates to students who had 11-15 content areas covered by the field agency.

Students who had 16-19 safety training content areas covered by the field agency had the highest mean of incidents ( $M = 2.97$ ,  $SD = 5.78$ ). Once again, the group of students with the lowest mean of incidents was students who had no safety training at the practicum agency ( $M = .97$ ,  $SD = 1.57$ ).

*Rate of client violence per training in other places.* For those who had training in places other than the social work program, a similar pattern existed. The highest rate of total violence, threats of harm, and verbal abuse happened to those with the 16 to 19 of 19 possible training areas. Physical assault, threats of lawsuit, and property damage occurred to students in the next to the highest category of training, those with 11-15 training areas.

The highest mean of incidents was 2.81( $SD = 7.82$ ) for those who had received training in places other than the social work program. This occurred in the next to highest group among those students who had training in 11-15 content areas.

*Hypothesis testing.* To test the hypothesis Pearson's correlations were calculated between the five types of violence and the summed violence and total training content areas covered in social work classes, field seminar, field agency and places other than the social work program. All of these correlations are recorded in Table 39 (Appendix A). For training in social work classes there were no significant correlations. Though correlations weren't significant, the correlations between threatened harm and threatened



lawsuits were negative as predicted. The other types of violence all had positive correlations with training in social work classes.

Correlations between the six categories of violence and training in field seminar were all positive, indicating that as students had more training in field seminar they experienced more violence. Two categories of violence trended towards significance. The first was verbal abuse ( $r = .104, p = .013$ ) and the second was the sum of violence ( $r = .109, p = .009$ ). Thus it is indicated that when training in field seminar increases, verbal abuse and total client violence significantly increases.

Types of violence and training in field agencies either had positive statistical significance or approached statistical significance for every type of violence. The following correlations trended toward significance: physical assault ( $r = .109, p = .009$ ); verbal abuse ( $r = .092, p = .029$ ); threatened lawsuit ( $r = .084, p = .044$ ); and property damage ( $r = .108, p = .010$ ). After the Bonferroni adjustment, the summed client violence had a positive statistical significance ( $r = .128, p = .002$ ) when correlated with total training in the field agency. The correlation between threatened harm and training in the field agency was also statistically significant ( $r = .140, p = .001$ ).

For training in places other than the social work program there were three correlations that trended toward significance, with a .05 probability level. Verbal abuse was positively correlated with total training in other places ( $r = .084, p = .046$ ). Likewise, property damage and training in other places had a positive correlation ( $r = .096, p = .022$ ). Finally, the summed total of violence was also correlated with other training ( $r = .093, p = .027$ ).

When all of the types of training were totaled, there were positive correlations that were either statistically significant or trending towards significance with every type of violence except physical assault. Two correlations approached significance at the .05 probability level. Threats of lawsuit ( $r = .087, p = .039$ ) and threats of harm ( $r = .083, p = .049$ ) had slightly lower correlations than the other types of violence.

After Bonferroni adjustments, three types of violence were statistically significant when correlated with total training content. The totaled violence correlated with total training at .155 ( $p < .001$ ). The next strongest correlation was .139 ( $p = .001$ ) between verbal abuse and total training. This was followed by property damage ( $r = .120, p = .004$ ).

Additional testing was done to determine if having training in more venues per content area affects exposure to violence. Pearson's correlations were calculated for numbers of sources of training within the social work program (social work practice class, field seminar, and field agency) and the six categories of violence (five types, plus summed violence). The correlation table in Appendix A, Table 40 contains all correlations between types of violence and total training per content area. Of 17 content areas, five areas were positively and significantly correlated at the .004 level with total client violence: "physical techniques for self protection" ( $r = 1.52, p = .000$ ), "characteristics/life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts" ( $r = .131, p = .002$ ), "verbal de-escalation techniques" ( $r = .128, p = .002$ ), "physical signs that attack is imminent" ( $r = .121, p = .004$ ), and "forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior" ( $r = .120, p = .004$ ). One content area was correlated at the .01 level,

approaching significance: “characteristics of high risk situations (i.e. non- public, isolated places)” ( $r = .108, p = .010$ ). Four other areas were positively correlated at the .05 level, again nearing significance: “recognizing verbal acts of violence” ( $r = .087, p = .039$ ), “knowledge of office safety (arranging work spaces to maximize safety)” ( $r = .100, p = .017$ ), “where to sit when interacting with a client” ( $r = .087, p = .038$ ), and “keeping supervisor informed of one’s itinerary” ( $r = .095, p = .023$ ). These positive correlations indicate that as training occurs in more training venues per content area overall client violence increases.

Analyses were similarly conducted for each type of violence. Verbal abuse was the type of violence with the most significant correlations. One area of training was positively and significantly correlated with verbal abuse at the .004 level: “physical techniques for self protection” ( $r = .136, p = .004$ ). Correlations between verbal abuse and three other content areas trended toward significance. In descending order of strength of correlation they were: “characteristics/life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts of violence” ( $r = .118, p = .005$ ), “knowledge of office safety” ( $r = .115, p = .006$ ), and “forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior” ( $r = .110, p = .009$ ). Four other areas additionally approached significance, with a probability level of .05. They were: verbal de-escalation techniques” ( $r = .106, p = .012$ ), “physical signs that attack is imminent” ( $r = .099, p = .019$ ), “characteristics of high risk situations” ( $r = .095, p = .023$ ), and “keeping supervisor informed of one’s itinerary” ( $r = .090, p = .031$ ).

Property damage had two significant correlations at the .004 level, including training on forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior ( $r = .151, p < .001$ ) and physical techniques for self protection ( $r = .135, p = .001$ ). Two additional content areas trended toward significance with a probability equal to or less than .01. This training was on characteristics/life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts ( $r = .118, p = .005$ ) and physical signs that attack is imminent ( $r = .106, p = .011$ ). Two additional content areas approached significance, with a .05 probability level: recognizing verbal acts of violence ( $r = .097, p = .020$ ) and verbal de-escalation techniques ( $r = .096, p = .022$ ). Again, these findings indicate that when there is training in more training venues on these subjects, there is a greater likelihood that students would have experienced client violence.

Threat of physical harm had no statistically significant correlations with training content areas at the .004 level. However, a positive correlation that trended toward significance, with a .01 probability level, was found in one content area, physical signs that attack is imminent ( $r = .111, p = .008$ ). Training on student rights ( $r = .100, p = .017$ ), verbal de-escalation ( $r = .096, p = .022$ ), and understanding characteristics/life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts ( $r = .090, p = .032$ ) were positively related to threat of physical harm at a .05 level that approached significance.

Physical assault was positively correlated with training content on “physical signs that an attack is imminent” ( $r = .109, p = .009$ ), approaching significance at the .01 probability level. Two additional areas trended toward significance with a .05 probability

level or less: “verbal de-escalation” ( $r = .092, p = .022$ ), and “physical techniques for self protection” ( $r = .101, p = .016$ ).

The type of violence with the least amount of correlations with training content areas that approached significance was threat of lawsuit. One training area neared significance with a .01 probability level: understanding high risk situations ( $r = .111, p = .008$ ) and one other area, keeping supervisor informed of one’s itinerary ( $r = -.091, p = .031$ ), approached significance with a .05 probability level.

*Extent of preparation.* A question related to safety training was the extent to which social work students felt prepared to deal with violent or potentially violent clients. Pearson’s correlations were done, using extent prepared as a continuous variable. Lower scores on the extent of preparedness represent feelings of more preparedness. Thus negative correlations indicate that as perception of preparedness is stronger, violent incidents increase. A negative correlation that approached significance at a .01 probability level was found between preparedness and direct physical assault ( $r = -.106, p = .012$ ). Other negative correlations that trended towards significance at the .05 probability level were found between preparedness and threats of physical harm ( $r = -.083, p = .050$ ), threat of lawsuit ( $r = -.100, p = .021$ ), and sum of direct client violence ( $r = -.09, p = .041$ ).

Hypothesis 1-10 is rejected for all types of violence

#### *Findings Related to Fear as Mediator Hypotheses*

The second section of hypothesis testing addresses establishing fear of future violence as a mediator between direct and indirect client violence and occupational

commitment and career withdrawal intentions. This section begins with a discussion of the conditions that are required to proceed with establishing mediation. This includes the section two hypotheses.

It was hypothesized that fear of future violence would mediate the relationship between client violence and occupational commitment and also that it would mediate the relationship between client violence and career withdrawal intentions. Testing this overall hypothesis required a series of hypotheses related to the steps involved with establishing mediation. The four steps required for mediation were delineated by Baron and Kenny (1986) and further expounded upon by Kenny (2008). For each step, preconditions must be met in order to proceed with establishing mediation.

#### *Client Violence Relationship with Occupational Commitment and Career Withdrawal Intentions*

Baron and Kenny (1988) state that the first step in establishing mediation is to show that the initial variable, in this case, client violence, is correlated with the outcome variable. In this case there are two outcome variables, occupational commitment and career turnover intention, so they will be discussed separately. The first condition for mediation was not written in the proposed hypotheses but it had to be addressed prior to proceeding to the proposed hypotheses.

To test this part of the mediation path, Pearson's correlations were calculated between the six direct violence variables and six indirect exposure variables to client violence variables and the three types of occupational commitment: affective commitment; normative commitment; and continuance commitment. It should be noted

that the occupational commitment scale is constructed of these three subscales. Each of the three subscales represents distinctly different constructs, so it is not appropriate to sum the three scales for a total occupational violence score. Results of the Pearson's correlations between types of direct violence and occupational commitment subscales are presented in table form in Appendix A, Table 41, where-as the Pearson's correlations between indirect violence and occupational commitment subscales are presented in Table 42.

*Client violence and affective commitment.* Analyses with Pearson's correlations showed no statistically significant correlations between any type of direct violence and affective commitment. Neither do the analyses indicate any significant correlations between any type of indirect client violence and affective commitment. The finding indicates that there is no relationship between direct or indirect violence and the type of commitment reflecting an emotional attachment and identification with the profession of social work and a desire to remain in the profession.

*Client violence and continuance commitment.* A second series of Pearson's correlations was completed between direct and indirect violence variables and continuance commitment. Again, there were no statistically significant correlations between any type of violence, direct or indirect, and continuance commitment. Otherwise stated, there was no relationship between exposure to client violence and the type of commitment that reflects an obligation to stay because too much has already been invested to leave the profession now and perceived costs of leaving are too high.

*Client violence and normative commitment.* The last type of commitment to be tested with client violence variables was normative commitment. Normative commitment reflects a perceived responsibility to the profession. Pearson's correlations were completed and indicated that there was no significant relationship between indirect exposure to client violence and normative commitment. Per the Bonferroni adjustments, analyses further showed that there was no statistically significant relationship between any types of direct client violence, though physical assault trended towards significance with a probability level of .01 ( $r = .105, p = .011$ ). Interpreted, this would mean that when a student is physically assaulted, he/she may tend to be more strongly committed to the profession of social work because of a sense of obligation and responsibility to the profession.

*Client violence and career withdrawal intentions.* Pearson's correlations were calculated between both direct and indirect type of violence and career withdrawal intentions. There were no statistically significant relationships between any type of violence and career withdrawal intentions. The results of the analyses can be seen in Table 41 and 42 (Appendix A).

#### *Fear of Future Violence as Mediator*

Since the first condition for mediation was not met for any of the variables, it was not appropriate to proceed with the other three steps to establish that fear of future violence was a possible mediator between client violence and occupational commitment and career withdrawal intentions. However, since the study specified that the hypotheses for these three steps would be explored, Hypotheses 2-1, 2-2, and 2-3 are analyzed here.



### *Hypothesis 2-1*

Experience of client violence has a positive and direct effect on fear of future violence.

This hypothesis addressed the second precondition for establishing fear as mediator. The condition was that the predictor variable(s), which in this case were 12 direct and indirect violence variables, would be significantly related to the proposed mediator, which in this case is fear of future violence. To test this hypothesis all the direct and indirect types of violence were placed in Pearson's correlation analyses with fear of future violence variables. Fear of future violence was represented in two ways. The first was with a summed fear of violence variable that reflected a general fear that any type of violence could occur in the next year. The second was with specific questions about fear of the five types of violence used throughout the study.

*Direct client violence and fear of future violence.* After Bonferroni adjustments, Pearson's correlations between direct client violence and general fear of future violence were positive and statistically significant for threatened harm ( $r = .178, p < .001$ ); verbal abuse ( $r = .126, p = .002$ ); threats of lawsuit ( $r = .152, p < .001$ ); and summed direct violence ( $r = .146, p < .001$ ). General fear was correlated with direct property damage ( $r = .084, p = .043$ ) at the .05 probability level, with this finding trending towards significance. All analyses results can be seen in Table 43 (Appendix A).

After Bonferroni adjustments, correlations between direct violence and three specific fears of the same type of violence were statistically significant with even stronger relationships than with general fear of violence. Threat of harm was significantly

and positively related to fear of future threatened harm ( $r = .216, p < .001$ ), threatened lawsuit was significantly and positively related to fear of future threatened lawsuit ( $r = .194, p < .001$ ), and verbal abuse was significantly and positively related to fear of future verbal abuse ( $r = .131, p = .001$ ).

Those students who had experienced physical assault reported that they have fear of physical assault ( $r = .084, p = .042$ ), with a .05 probability level that trends towards significance. Those who had experienced property damage had fear of property damage ( $r = .085, p = .040$ ), with this finding approaching significance at a .05 probability level.

*Indirect exposure to client violence and fear of future violence.* Even after Bonferroni adjustments, indirect exposure to client violence proved to be significantly related to fear of future violence for every type of violence. Total indirect violence was positively and significantly correlated with general fear of future violence within the next year ( $r = .236, p < .001$ ). When Pearson's correlations were calculated for the types of violence and general fear of future violence, all correlations were positive and statistically significant at the .001 level. The strongest relationship was between threatened lawsuit and fear of future violence ( $r = .270, p < .001$ ). Threatened physical harm ( $r = .210, p < .001$ ) and verbal abuse ( $r = .206, p < .001$ ) followed with similar relationships with fear of future violence. Even the two types with the lowest strength of relationship with fear of future violence, physical assault ( $r = .168, p < .001$ ) and property damage ( $r = .153, p < .001$ ), were more strongly related than types of direct violence with fear of future violence. Analyses results of indirect types of violence and fears of violence are noted in Table 44 (Appendix A). In summary, every one of the relationships

between indirect violence and general fear of violence were positive and significant and they were even stronger than the relationships between types of direct violence and general fear of future violence.

As was the case with specific types of direct violence and specific fear of future violence, indirect exposures to all specific types of violence were positively and significantly related to specific types of fear of the same type of violence. Every relationship was significant at the .001 level. The strongest relationship was between indirect exposure to threats of lawsuits and fear of future threat of lawsuit ( $r = .293$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Indirect threatened harm was related to fear of future threatened harm ( $r = .232$ ,  $p < .001$ ). There followed three other significant relationships: indirect verbal abuse to fear of future verbal abuse ( $r = .212$ ,  $p < .001$ ), indirect physical assault with fear of future physical assault ( $r = .170$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and indirect property damage with fear of future property damage ( $r = .135$ ,  $p = .001$ ).

Hypothesis 2-1 is accepted for every type of violence.

#### *Hypothesis 2-2*

Fear of future violence has a negative and direct effect on occupational commitment.

This hypothesis was tested by computing Pearson's correlations to assess the relationship between fear of future violence and the three subscales of occupational commitment, which are affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. Fear of future violence was measured by using the five fear variables that addressed specific types of violence and a variable for summed or general fear of

violence. Results of the correlation analyses between fear of violence and the occupational commitment subscales are presented in tabular form in Table 45 (Appendix A).

*Fear of future violence and affective commitment.* The first set of correlations was between the fear variables and affective commitment. All of the correlations with affective commitment were negative as predicted. Fear of physical assault was negatively related to affective commitment ( $r = -.102, p = .014$ ), at a .01 probability level that approached significance. Fear of future threatened harm was also related to affective commitment ( $r = -.083, p = .046$ ) at the .05 probability level that trended towards significance. However, after Bonferroni adjustments, none of the relationships between fear of future violence and affective commitment were significant.

*Fear of future violence and normative commitment.* The next Pearson's correlations were conducted to assess relationship between fear variables and normative commitment. Even after Bonferroni adjustments, every correlation was positive and statistically significant at the .004 level. Overall fear of future abuse was positively and significantly related to normative commitment ( $r = .168, p < .001$ ). Of the specific types of fear, fear of future verbal abuse had the strongest relationship with normative commitment ( $r = .144, p < .001$ ). The remaining relationships between specific types of fear and normative commitment were as follows, in descending order: fear of physical assault ( $r = .144, p = .001$ ); fear of threats of physical harm ( $r = .130, p = .002$ ); fear of threat of lawsuit ( $r = .126, p = .002$ ); and fear of property damage ( $r = .124, p = .003$ ).

*Fear of future violence and continuance commitment.* The final set of Pearson's correlations assessed the relationships between fear variables and continuance commitment. Again, after Bonferroni adjustments, there were significant, positive relationships between every type of fear variable and continuance commitment. Overall fear of future violence was positively and significantly related to continuance commitment ( $r = .169, p < .001$ ). Fear of verbal abuse again had the strongest relationship with continuance commitment ( $r = .174, p < .001$ ). The next strongest relationship was between fear of threat of lawsuit and continuance commitment, with a Pearson's correlation of .149 ( $p < .001$ ). Other positive significant relationships clustered around the same number: fear of physical assault ( $r = .122, p = .003$ ); fear of threat of harm ( $r = .121, p = .004$ ); and fear of property damage ( $r = .121, p = .004$ ). Hypothesis 2-2 is rejected for every type of violence with affective, normative, and continuance commitment.

### *Hypothesis 2-3*

Fear of future client violence has a negative and direct effect on career withdrawal intentions.

This hypothesis is the third precondition for establishing fear as mediator between client violence and career withdrawal conditions. It is necessary to show that the proposed mediator, fear of future violence, significantly affects career turnover intentions.

This hypothesis was tested by calculating Pearson's correlations between the six fear of violence variables and the career withdrawal intentions scale. There were no significant correlations for these analyses.

Hypothesis 2-3 is rejected for every type of fear of future violence.

### *Predictor of Violence Analyses*

#### *Predicting Client Violence Based on the Effect of Independent Variables*

In order to determine the best predictors of direct client violence among social work students multiple regression analyses were conducted to analyze the separate effects of a set of independent factors on experiencing client violence. The independent variables chosen for each analysis were those that had statistical significance with any type of violence in the previous analyses. Since many of the initial hypotheses findings were based on categorical variables, dummy variables were created to represent the groups of people who had been found to experience significantly more violence or who had higher means of client violence. The independent variables included in the analyses were: males, MSW students, students aged 25-30, students who made 11 or more home visits, those who worked 51-75% of their practicum during evening hours, Native Americans, Asians, students with mixed ethnic heritage, unmatched minority supervision dyads, and students who did their practicum hours in criminal justice settings, school social work, children and youth settings, alcohol/substance abuse settings, mental health settings, or developmental disability settings. Quantitative variables were used for years of experience, total training, field seminar training, field agency training, and training in other places.

*Methods of analysis.* The direct violence variables all had extremely high skewedness and kurtosis due to the nature of the variables. For example, the most frequently experienced type of violence was verbal abuse and it was experienced by 37.9% of the sample. This meant that 62.1% had experience no verbal assault. Thus 366 people had zero incidents of verbal abuse. Efforts were made to curb the skewedness and kurtosis through various means including log transformations, inverse transformations, and truncating the variables at 4 standard deviations, truncating the incidents at 7 incidents, and eliminating cases over 4 standard dissertations. None of these methods resulted in skew and kurtosis values that were acceptable. In approaching multiple regression analysis, it was necessary to have variables and variable combinations that approximated a normal curve. Because of this a decision was made to calculate two multiple regression analyses for total client violence. The first calculation utilized as the dependent variable a dichotomous variable to analyze what combinations of characteristics/ groups of students predicted whether or not client violence had occurred. This allowed for an analysis with all students included, regardless of whether or not they had experienced client violence. After this initial analysis a second analysis was conducted using only the students who had experienced violence. This had the effect of decreasing the skew and kurtosis by taking students with zero incidents of violence out of the calculations. This method has been illustrated with economic costs projects where many subjects spend nothing and a few spend large amounts (Jones et al., 2006). After taking out students with no experience of violence, there remained unacceptable values of

skew and kurtosis for the sum of direct violence. This variable was transformed using a log transformation. This achieved acceptable skew and kurtosis values under two.

*Data screening.* Data screening was done for each of the multivariate combinations of all the independent variables and the dependent variables as described above. Using data from Mahalanobis distance, the sum of direct violence continued to have multivariate outliers. With this variable, 11 cases had to be dropped as they had chi square critical values over 48.26 (as determined by chi square critical values chart for 20 degrees of freedom and a significance of  $p < .001$ ).

Data screening showed that total training had an unacceptable tolerance rate of .000 due to using the other variables that were used to compute the total rates. A decision was made to delete the total training variable from all multivariate analyses and to keep the training totals from each of the four training venues.

*Screening for multicollinearity.* Correlations between the other 18 independent factors were established through the use of Pearson's correlations. The MSW group was significantly correlated with 10 of the other factors, though the most significant correlation (with years of experience) was .368 ( $p = .000$ ). The remainders of the MSW correlations were under .232. Being male correlated with 4 factors, of which the strongest relationship was with field agency training ( $r = .130, p = .003$ ). There were 8 significant relationships among the 6 practice settings that were used for independent variables, with the strongest correlation between the school setting and children and youth setting ( $r = -.135, p = .001$ ). There were two significant correlations between making 11 or more



home visits and practice settings, with the strongest correlation with children and youth settings ( $r = .181, p = .000$ ). The unmatched minority supervision dyads overlapped with two of the minority groups, with the highest correlation with students of mixed heritage ( $r = .180, p = .000$ ). There were 2 significant correlations between years of experience and practice settings, with the highest correlation with students in mental health settings ( $r = .106, p = .017$ ). The variables with the strongest relationships were the training variables. There was a positive significant relationship between total training received in social work classes and field seminar ( $r = .473, p = .000$ ). Additionally there were significant correlations between total field agency training and total social work class training ( $r = .259, p = .000$ ) and total field seminar training ( $r = .370, p = .000$ ).

In summary, there were several statistically significant correlations among the twenty variables. However, there is a relatively small shared variance in all of these significant correlations, except for training in social work class and training in field seminar, which would be considered a moderate co-variance. Therefore, the correlations create limited multicollinearity and do not affect the multiple regression models.

*Assumptions of multiple regression analyses.* Though every effort was made to achieve normality, the violence variables continued to show a significant deviance from normality, per Kolmogorov- Smirnov tests. However, Tate (as cited in Mertler & Vannatta, 2005) has stated that moderate violations of the normality assumption may be ignored, particularly with a large sample size, since there are no adverse effects on the analysis. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) agree that with large samples the significance level of skewedness and kurtosis is not as important as the size of the skew and kurtosis

and they further state the underestimates of variance with positive kurtosis disappear with samples of 100 or more cases.

Visual screening of the residual scatterplots revealed some degree of non-linearity as well as possible heteroscedasticity. However, Mertler and Vanatta (2005) state that moderate violations weaken the regression analysis, but do not invalidate it.

### *Multiple Regression Analyses Results*

The result of the multiple regression analyses are presented here beginning with the sum of violence and proceeding through the five different types of violence. As stated above, two multiple regression models are presented for the sum of client violence. The first model addresses the prediction of the rate of direct client violence and the second model predicts the frequency of direct client violence. For each specific type of violence only the first multiple regression could be calculated as there were not sufficient numbers of people who had experienced each type of violence. With the exception of verbal abuse, the amount of people who experienced each type of violence did not meet the minimum number required to conduct multiple regression with the number of predictor variables that were being used (Green, 1991).

*Predicting sum of client violence.* A stepwise multiple regression was conducted to determine which of the independent variables predict occurrence of client violence. Since the dependent variable was dichotomous there were no cases that had to be eliminated. Regression results indicate that the overall model significantly predicts occurrence of client violence,  $R^2=.063$ ,  $R^2_{adj} = .056$ ,  $F(4/504) = 8.47$ ,  $p < .001$ . The model accounts for 5.6% of variance in occurrence of client violence. A summary of

regression coefficients is presented in Table 46 (Appendix A) and indicates that only four of the seventeen variables, male gender, working in a mental health/psychiatric setting, making 11 or more home visits, and working in an alcohol/substance abuse setting, significantly contributed to the model.

A second stepwise multiple regression was conducted to determine the accuracy of the 18 independent variables predicting the frequency of client violence. Note that this analysis was conducted using only those students who had experienced client violence and that the sum of violence variable, already transformed to reduce cases over 4 standard deviations, was transformed again via a log transformation. Even so, eleven cases had to be excluded due to a chi square over the critical value. After all combinations of variables, there remained 194 students in this analysis. Native Americans, Asians, and unmatched minority supervision dyads were deleted from the computation because they had missing correlations. The results indicate the model significantly predicts frequency of client violence,  $R^2 = .034$ ,  $R^2_{adj} = .029$ ,  $F(1/192) = 6.68$ ,  $p = .011$ . The model accounts for 2.9% of the variance in frequency of client violence. Regression coefficients are presented in Table 47 (Appendix A). Only being male significantly contributes to the model.

*Predicting of physical assault.* A stepwise multiple regression was computed between the dependent variable (dichotomous variable- no physical assault vs. at least one physical assault) and the 18 independent variables. Because there was no variability in the dependent variable, there were no cases to delete and residual scatterplot had two distinct lines. The model significantly predicted occurrence of physical assault,  $F$

$(2/508) = 5.36, p = .005$ .  $R^2$  for the model was .021 and the adjusted  $R^2$  was .018. Table 48 (Appendix A) displays unstandardized coefficients and standardized coefficients for the two variables in the model. The model predicts that the highest rate of physical assault occurs to students who are working in a developmental disability setting and students who have more field agency training. Though the prediction is significant, these two factors contribute only 1.7% in shared variability.

*Predicting of threatened physical harm.* Using the dichotomous variable representing no experience with threats of harm versus experience with threats of harm, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to ascertain which, if any, of the 18 independent variables might predict the occurrence of threat of physical harm. Data screening did not result in the deletion of any cases. Because there was no variability in the dependent variable, scatterplot showed two evenly distributed lines. As indicated in Table 49 (Appendix A), the analysis revealed the model significantly predicted occurrence of threat of physical harm,  $R^2 = .053, R^2_{adj} = .050, F(2/504) = 14.239, p < .001$ . Being male ( $t = 4.53, p < .001$ ) and interning at a mental health/psychiatric setting ( $t = 2.25, p = .025$ ) significantly predicted that threat of violence would happen. These two factors accounted for 5% of the variance in threats of physical harm.

*Predicting verbal abuse.* The rate of verbal abuse for this sample was predicted by using a dichotomous variable to determine whether or not a student had been verbally abused with 20 independent variables in a stepwise multiple regression. No cases were removed due to the dichotomous nature of the dependent variable. Likewise, residual plots demonstrated two straight lines. Table 50 (Appendix A) shows that the

regression analysis revealed a model that significantly predicted occurrence of verbal abuse,

$F(4/502) = 6.63, p < .001$ .  $R^2$  for the model was .05 and the adjusted  $R^2$  was .043. Thus the model indicates that the overall model predicts 4.3% of the variance in the occurrence of verbal abuse. Four variables predicted whether verbal abuse would occur. The significant predictors were: being male; interning in a mental health/psychiatric setting; making 11 or more home visits; and interning in an alcohol/substance abuse setting.

*Predicting threat of lawsuit.* Prediction of occurrence of threat of lawsuit was measured using a stepwise multiple regression analysis to determine which, if any, of 18 independent variables predicted such an occurrence. Occurrence of lawsuit was measured through a dichotomous variable that reported whether or not a student had experienced threat of lawsuit. No cases needed to be dropped since there was no variability in the data. The regression model significantly predicted occurrence of threat of lawsuit,

$F(4/502) = 8.99, p < .001$ . Table 51 (Appendix A) indicated that  $R^2$  for the model was .067 and the adjusted  $R^2$  was .059, indicating that 5.9% of the variance in occurrence of threat of lawsuit. Four of the twenty independent variables significantly predicted whether threat of lawsuit would occur. Being aged 25-30, being of mixed ethnic heritage, making 11 or more home visits, and interning in alcohol/substance abuse settings predicted occurrence of threat of lawsuit.

*Predicting damage to personal or professional property.* A stepwise multiple regression was computed to determine the accuracy of 18 independent variables

predicting the occurrence of property damage. Since the dependent variable predicted only whether or not property damage had occurred, there were no cases dropped and residual diagram reflected two straight lines, as there is no variability in a dichotomous variable. The rate of property damage was significantly predicted by a three factor model,  $F(3/503) = 8.10, p < .001$ . The  $R^2$  was .046 and the adjusted  $R^2$  was .040, thus indicating that that the model accounted for 4% of the variance in occurrence of property damage. Table 52 (Appendix A) presents the regression coefficients for the three factors, which were being male, having a mixed minority supervision dyad, and interning in a mental health/psychiatric setting.

## Chapter V

### Summary and Discussion

#### *Summary of Findings*

##### *Response Rate*

A total of 1,500 surveys were mailed to randomly selected social work students from the NASW student membership roster for 2008, making this the only social work student client violence study ever done using probability sampling. The response rate for the current study was 45.25%, which was substantially higher than the 30% that was projected. This rate is higher than all but one response rate in national social work education studies published in two major journals in the past six years. Additionally, the number of respondents who met the inclusionary criteria ( $N = 595$ ) was by far larger than the 159 recommended by Green (1991) in order to have 18 predictor variables, a statistical power of .80, an alpha of .05, and a medium effect size. Also, this sample size was more than double the largest sample size to date ( $N = 258$ ) in a social work student client violence study (Knight, 1996).

##### *Characteristics of Sample*

*Gender/age.* The social work students in this client violence study were largely female (88.2%), similar to every client violence study done with social work students to date. The largest age group represented was the 25-30 group (27.4%), followed closely by those under 25 (24.4%), thus slightly more than half of the sample were traditional

aged BSWs and MSWs. The remaining students (47.9%) were over 30. This is a slightly lower proportion of students under 30 than the 61% of BSW students under 30 in Knight's (1999) client violence study, yet a higher proportion than in Elwood and Rey's (1996) student study, in which 24.4% of the social work students were under 30. (The Elwood and Rey study did not specify whether the students were BSW, MSW, or both.) The mean age in the current study was 33.1, which is higher than the mean age in other student studies that included only BSW students (Knight, 1996; Mama, 2001). Only one other client violence study has queried both MSW and BSW students and mean age was not included in that study.

*Experience.* The majority (49.4%) of the sample had no paid social work experience, with an additional 15.1% of students having less than 3 years' experience. This is the least experienced group of social work students in any social work student client violence studies to date.

*Race/ethnicity.* Seventy one percent of the students in this sample were White. Only one student study had a larger percentage of minority students (Knight, 1999). Only one other student study with a very small sample reported specific minority ethnicities of students (Schwarzmueller, 1998). Thus the current study is unique in its effort to solicit responses from higher numbers of non-White students and to report and analyze the effects of their specific ethnicities on client violence.

*Degree program.* By design, the sample was made up of half BSW students and half MSW students. Of the questionnaires included in the study 57.1% were those of MSW students, whereas 42.2% were from BSW students. Only one other social work



student study included both MSW students and BSW students (Tully et al., 1993) and an additional study focused on 37 MSW students (Schwarzmueller, 1998). Together, only 109 MSW students have previously been asked about client violence. This study contributes to the literature by including responses of 340 MSW students.

*Home visits.* About half of the students in this study made no home visits during the course of practicum. It is implied that many of the respondent completed most of their practicum experience in agency settings. Of those students who did make home visits, 56% made 11 or more home visits. Thus, if students were in a practice setting where they make any home visits, they are prone to see numerous clients in their homes. Students in child/youth/child protection settings were much more likely to make increased amounts of home visits than students in all of the other practice settings. Other practice settings where students made increased amounts of home visits are mental health/psychiatric settings and family service settings.

*Evening hours.* One third of the students said that they did not work any evening hours and an additional 42.7% of students worked between 1% and 25% of their time during evening hours. This implied that most of the respondents completed the majority of their practicum experience primarily during daytime hours. However, many students in corrections/criminal justice settings, alcohol/substance abuse settings, and family services settings worked more than 50% of their practicum time during evening hours.

*Practice settings.* The three largest practice settings for this sample were child/youth/protective services, psychiatric/mental health, and medical/healthcare services. Higher percentages of MSW students were in hospital medical settings,

alcohol/substance abuse settings, schools, community organizations, and psychiatric mental health settings. Higher percentages of BSW students were in developmental disabilities, corrections/criminal justice, children and youth/child protection, and family services. The only previous social work student client violence study that mentioned specific internship sites of students reported only that the majority of the 37 students were placed in mental health related placements (Mama, 2001), so this study is the first student client violence study to report information about more specific practice settings.

*Training.* Of 19 possible safety content areas that could have been taught in training, a mean of 7.63 were covered in social work practice classes. A slightly lower mean number ( $M = 6.24$ ) of content areas were received in field agencies. An even lower mean amount of content was received in field seminar ( $M = 3.92$ ). Forty two (7.2%) of the students reported that they received no safety training in social work practice classes, while 12.9% had no safety training at the field agency. One third of the students received no safety content in field seminar. Slightly more than half of the sample (54.4%) received at least some safety training from other sources.

The safety content area received by the most students in social work practice classes was where to sit when interacting with a client. In field seminar and at the field agency, the training area most frequently received was keeping the supervisor informed of one's itinerary. Conversely, the area covered least often in field seminar, social work practice classes and the field agency was physical techniques for self protection. Interestingly, the two content areas received most often from sources other than the social work program was physical techniques for self protection and verbal de-escalation.

The only student study to previously ask about safety content that students had received was Elwood and Rey (1996). The content areas covered in social work education about which they asked cannot be directly compared to the current study as they are more general content areas. From Elwood and Rey's study, four training content areas covered in the field agency can be compared to content areas received by students in the current study. Both studies questioned content on verbal de-escalation. Elwood and Rey's study asked about content on predicting violence. Though the current study does not inquire about this same content area, three content areas imply prediction of violence: characteristics/life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts; forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior; and assessing history of violence in clients. Elwood and Rey's study reported on training on physical management of violence, which compared to the question in the current study on physical techniques for self defense. Similar percentages of students from both studies reported experiencing these comparable training content areas. However, fewer students in the Elwood and Rey study had knowledge of agency safety policies than in the current study. The remaining 13 training content areas in the current study have not been reported in any other student studies.

Many of the safety content areas reported by students in this study can be compared to the safety content area reported to have been covered by BSW field programs in Faria and Kendra's (2007) study. For every content area that can be compared the students recall receiving substantially less training than the field directors said that they had provided. (See Table 53, Appendix A). For example, 100% of the field

directors in Faria and Kendra's study said that they had provided safety content on characteristics of high-risk situations. In contrast, only 48.1% of the students in the current study recalled having training in this same area in social work practice classes. There were only two areas that approached agreement between the field director perspective and the student perspective.

Over half (55.9%) of the student respondents felt that they were either somewhat prepared or not prepared at all to deal with violent or potentially violent clients. Males feel significantly more prepared than females and MSW students feel significantly more prepared to deal with violence than BSW students. Increased work experience also helped students to feel more prepared. Students under the age of 24 felt the least prepared to deal with violence.

*Fear of future violence.* Students reported that they had more fear of future verbal abuse than any other type of violence. Almost half had at least a moderate amount of fear that verbal abuse would occur to them in the future. Students were least fearful about the prospect of damage to their personal or professional property. Overall, 36.2% strongly or moderately feared that some type of violence would occur to them in the next year.

*Occupational commitment.* Social work students in this study have extremely high levels of affective commitment, which is the type of commitment that demonstrates a pride in and identification with the profession of social work. They scored a mean score of 23.35 of a possible 25 on the affective commitment subscale. On the normative commitment subscale, students scored a mean score of 11.69 of a possible 20, thus demonstrating that they are moderately committed to the profession due to a sense of

obligation or responsibility. Finally, students scored a mean score of 16.30 of a possible 25, demonstrating that students are moderately committed due to feelings that they have invested too much of their lives in the profession to turn back.

Only two student studies that included measurement of occupational commitment could be located for comparison to the present study (Lazar, Cohen, & Guttman, 1995; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). The first was the only previous social work student study to measure occupational commitment (Lazar et al, 1995). These researchers created a version of the scale that was used in the current study, but they measured only affective commitment and continuance commitment and the scales had more items. Given these differences, it can be noted that, like the current study, affective commitment was stronger than continuance commitment. The U.S. students in the current sample had a much stronger identification with and pride in being a part of the profession of social work than the social work students in Israel, but the U.S. students also had stronger feelings of being committed due how much it has cost them monetarily, time wise, and energy wise to be in the profession of social work.

The other comparison student study was a study of nursing students by the creators of the scale used in the current study (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Like the current study, affective commitment was higher than normative and continuance commitment. The social work students had higher levels of all three types of occupational commitment than the nursing students. This seems to indicate that while the social work students in the present study have stronger feelings of identity with their profession and

stronger feelings of responsibility toward the profession, they also have stronger feelings of being committed to the profession because it is too costly for them to quit.

*Career withdrawal intentions.* Few social work students in this sample had intentions or thoughts about withdrawing from the profession of social work. The mean score on the career withdrawal intentions scale was 4.40 of a possible 15, with 3 indicating the least amount of withdrawal intentions. No studies have previously focused solely on students so there are no comparisons that can be made between this study and other studies.

#### *Summary of Prevalence of Direct Exposure to Client Violence*

Of 595 social work students 41.7% ( $n = 248$ ) experienced at least one incident of client violence during their practicum. The most common type of violence experienced was verbal abuse (37.5%). Slightly more than 14% of students experienced threat of physical harm, while 9.5% were threatened with a lawsuit and 7.3% had damage to personal or professional property by a client. Twenty one students (3.5%) were physically assaulted within their practicum experience. In total, social work students experienced 1591 incidents of client violence during practicum.

Previous studies have indicated that child protection/child welfare settings are among the most common settings for social workers to experience client violence (Beaver, 1998; Jayarante et al., 2004; Newhill, 1996; Song, 2005). Song's (2005) national study drawn from NASW membership that focused on the client violence experience of child protection/child welfare workers is felt to be a good comparison study due to its similar definitions of violence. A direct comparison cannot be made due to the practicing

social workers in Song's study reporting incidents within the past year and social work students in the current study reporting incidents that occurred during practicum.

However, it should be considered that a large majority of students in the current study had been in practicum for less than 1000 hours, which is the equivalent of a half year of work at the most. When compared to annual violence rates for practicing child protection social workers in Song's study, the rates of client violence towards the social work students in the current study are higher in every comparable category. Thus, in less than 1000 hours of practice, social work students in this study reported higher rates of every type of violence than social work practitioners reported in one year at one of the most dangerous practice settings reported in previous social work client violence studies.

It is more difficult to compare rates of client violence in other social work student studies with the current study as there has been little consistency in the way questions about violence have been asked. Three of the student studies listed total client violence rates of 43.5% ( $N = 78$ ) (Elwood & Rey, 1996); 54% ( $N = 37$ ) (Mama, 2001); and 26% ( $N = 121$ ) (Tully et al., 1993). The rate of client violence in the current study is 41.7%. Verbal abuse rates have been reported between 22% (Tully et al., 1993) and 49% (Mama, 2001), whereas the verbal abuse rate in the current study is 37.5%. Physical assault has been reported between 2.1% (Knight, 1996) and 15.8% (Mama, 2001). The current study's physical assault rate fell on the low side of this continuum, at 3.5%.

#### *Summary of Prevalence of Indirect Exposure to Client Violence*

The majority (60.2%) of the social work students in this study had either heard about or witnessed client violence occurring to co-workers and/or fellow social work

students. As with direct client violence, the most prevalent type of violence that was indirectly experienced was verbal abuse (54.1%). Almost one quarter (23.4%) of the students had been indirectly exposed to threat of lawsuit and physical assault. Finally, 20.5% of students had been exposed indirectly to property damage.

Two previous student studies asked students if they were aware of violence in the workplace. Elwood and Rey (1996) found that 43.6% of the 78 social work students questioned were aware of violence toward professionals in the workplace. This percentage is less than the total percentage of students who indirectly encountered client violence in the current study. Tully and colleagues (1993) found that 25% of social work students knew of or had seen violence toward other personnel at their practicum site. This is also lower than the indirect exposure to client violence experienced by the students in the current study.

The social work students in the current study had substantially higher indirect exposure to client violence during their practicum (60.2%) than child welfare social workers in Song's (2005) study had in one year (37.2%). In all comparable categories, this sample of social work students heard about or witnessed more of every type of violence during their practicum than social work practitioners experienced one year's time at one of the most dangerous practice settings.

#### *Summary of Prevalence of Client Violence Hypotheses*

Hypotheses 1-1 through 1-5 were related to personal demographic characteristics. Hypothesis 1-1 projected that male social work students would experience more of every type of violence than female social work students. Descriptive data reflected that male



social work students experienced every type of violence at almost twice the rate of female social work students. Males also experienced a higher mean of client violence incidents than females for every type of violence. Additionally, males experienced significantly more threats of physical harm. Findings trended toward significance with males experiencing more verbal abuse and sum of direct violence than females. Thus, the hypothesis was accepted for threats of physical harm. There were no significant differences between males and females in numbers of physical assaults, property damage, verbal abuse, threats of lawsuits, and sum of direct client violence, thus the hypothesis was rejected for those types of violence.

Hypothesis 1-2 projected that younger social work students experience more client violence than older social work students. There was no significant relationship between age and client when age was analyzed as a continuous variable. When age was categorized into groups of traditional aged BSW students (aged 24 and under), traditional aged MSW students (aged 25 to 30), and non-traditional aged students (aged 31 and older), it was found that students aged 25-30 experienced more threats of lawsuit than students under the age of 25 or over the age of 30, at a level that approached significance. There were no significant findings for any type of violence. Thus, for all types of violence, the hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 1-3 projected that less experienced students would experience more of every type of client violence than social work students with more paid social work experience. Strong positive relationships at levels that trended towards significance were found between social work students' years of experience and verbal abuse and between

years of experience and summed client violence. Similarly, students who had 3-5 years experience encountered more verbal abuse and summed client violence than students with no experience. This finding also approached significance, though with more stringent Bonferroni requirements, the relationship was not statistically significant. There were no significant relationships between years of experience and any other type of client violence. Though students with 3-5 years' experience experienced more verbal abuse and summed violence than students with 1-2 years' experience or students with 5-10 years of experience, the differences were not statistically significant. Hypothesis 1-3 was rejected for every type of client violence.

Hypothesis 1-4 projected that there would be no difference in exposure to all types of violence by students of various ethnicities/racial backgrounds. The highest rates of violence were among students with mixed ethnic heritage, followed by Asian/Pacific Islanders and Native Americans. It was found that Native Americans had significantly more verbal abuse than every other ethnic group and had significantly more summed client violence than every other ethnic group except Asian/Pacific Islanders. Threat of lawsuit was significantly more likely to occur to social work students with mixed ethnic heritage.

Property damage was more likely to occur to students of mixed ethnic heritage than Whites, Blacks, and Latinos and it was more likely to occur to Native Americans than Blacks. After Bonferroni adjustments, these findings were near, but did not reach significance. There were no significant differences between ethnic groups for physical assault or threat of physical harm. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted for physical

assault, property damage, and threat of physical assault. However, the hypothesis was rejected for verbal abuse, threat of lawsuit, and summed client violence because particular groups of minority ethnic students suffered more of those kinds of violence than Latino/Hispanic student, Black students or White students.

Hypothesis 1-5 projected that BSW students would experience more client violence than MSW students. MSW students experienced higher rates of threats of lawsuit, verbal abuse, threats of physical harm and summed client violence, while BSW students experienced higher rates of physical assault and property damage. It was additionally found that MSW students experienced significantly more threats of physical harm than BSW students. MSW students also experienced total violence at a higher level than BSW students, as the .03 probability level indicated, however with Bonferroni adjustments, the findings only trended toward significance. There were no other significant findings. The hypothesis is rejected for all types of violence.

Hypothesis 1-6 projected that there would be significant differences in numbers of client violence incidents occurring to social work students according to where the violence occurs. The most recent violent incidents of almost every type of client violence took place at highest rates at office settings. Only physical assault happened more often in settings other than the office or the client's home. Because the questions about place of violence asked only about the most recent incident of violence, it was not possible to inferentially test the hypothesis. Therefore the hypothesis could not be accepted or rejected. A related question was analyzed to determine if social work students who make more home visits experience a higher mean number of violent incidents. It was found that

threats of lawsuits and summed client violence were more likely to occur to students who made the most home visits, though the probability levels only trended toward significance after Bonferroni adjustments.

Hypothesis 1-7 projected that there would be a significant difference in numbers of client violence occurring to social work student according to the time of day. For every type of violence, the highest rate of violence occurred during daytime hours. The highest rate of violence was among those who worked 51-75% of their practicum during evening hours. Additionally, physical assault trended towards significance when students worked 51-75% of their practicum during evening hours. The hypothesis could not be directly rejected or accepted. Through a similar analysis concerning exposure to client violence per amount of evening hours worked, the hypothesis was also rejected for every type of violence.

Hypothesis 8 projected that there would be differences in exposure to client violence depending upon the practice settings of the students. It was found that there were differences in client violence exposure depending on practice settings and the findings approached significance. The three practice settings with the highest rates of violence were mental health/psychiatric settings, developmental disabilities settings, and alcohol and substance abuse settings. Students in these settings were more than two times more likely to encounter client violence than in community planning/community organizing settings, which had the lowest rate of violence. Criminal justice settings had the highest mean of client violence, followed by schools, developmental disabilities settings, mental health services settings, and alcohol/substance abuse settings. The only

type of violence that was substantially related to practice setting was threats of lawsuit, which was more likely to happen in alcohol/substance abuse settings than any other setting. This finding approached significance at the .05 level, but was not significant after Bonferroni adjustments. The hypothesis was rejected none of the findings reached a level of significance.

Hypothesis 9 projected that there would be a difference in exposure to client violence depending upon whether the student's race/ethnicity was different from their field educator. Students who were in unmatched minority supervision dyads had the highest rates of every type of violence. This group also had the highest mean of client violence, as opposed to matched supervision dyads, White student/minority supervisor dyads, and minority student/White supervisor dyads. It was additionally found that property damage was experienced by significantly more students who were in mixed minority supervision dyads than the other three groups. There were no other significant findings for any other type of client violence. The hypothesis was accepted for property damage occurring to students who are in mixed minority supervision dyads. The hypothesis was rejected for all other types of client violence.

Hypothesis 1-10 projected that students who have more safety training offered by their social work program would experience less of every type of violence than social work students who have had less safety training in their social work program. There was no significant relationship between total training in social work classes and exposure to client violence. Total training in field seminar was positively and significantly related to verbal abuse, property damage, and summed client violence. Total training was also

related to threatened lawsuit at the .04 level and threatened physical harm at the .05 level, but these relationships failed to be significant after Bonferroni adjustments.

Total training at the field agency was positively related to every type of violence. There were statistically significant findings for the relationships between training at the field agency and threatened physical harm and sum of client violence. The relationships between field agency safety training and physical assault and property damage were near significance with .01 probability levels. Verbal abuse and property damage also trended toward significance, with less than .05 probability levels, but none of the four types of training met the significance criteria after Bonferroni adjustments.

For training in places other than the social work program positive relationships that were nearly significant (at the .05 probability level) were found with verbal abuse, property damage, and summed client violence; however, after Bonferroni adjustments, these relationships did not meet significance requirements.

The positive correlations between training in various venues and types of violence indicate that as students received more training they also experience more violence. Though there were some significant findings, they were not in the direction predicted. Therefore, this hypothesis must be rejected for every type of violence.

#### *Summary of Additional Analysis*

After all prevalence of client violence hypotheses had been addressed, further analyses were completed to determine the best predictors of each type of violence. A set of 18 independent variables were chosen on the basis of findings in the prevalence of client violence analyses. They were then entered into a multiple regression analyses for

each type of violence as well as overall client violence. The analysis predicted the occurrence of the type of violence. For summed client violence a second multiple regression analysis predicted the frequency of violence.

Based on previous analyses findings, 18 independent variables were entered into all of the multiple regression analyses to determine any significant predictors of the types of violence. When the independent variables were entered into the first stepwise multiple regression analysis to predict occurrence of summed client violence, it was found that being male, working in a mental health/psychiatric setting, making 11 or more home visits, and working in an alcohol/substance abuse setting significantly predicted occurrence of client violence.

The second stepwise multiple regression found which factors predicted frequency of summed client violence. This analysis indicated that being male significantly predicted frequency of client violence.

The previous analyses found that the following factors strongly affected experience of physical assault in social work students: being aged 25-30, working 51-75% evening hours, and having more field agency training. When 18 variables were entered into a multiple regression analysis, two variables, working in a developmental disability setting and having more field agency training, significantly predicted occurrence of physical assault.

Hypotheses analyses in this study indicated that being male, being of mixed heritage, being an MSW student, and having more field agency training are significantly related to increased threat of physical harm. Further step-wise analysis to check which

factors significantly contributed to occurrence of threat of physical harm found that being male and interning in a mental health practice setting were significant predictors.

This study has shown that the following factors are strongly related to social work students encountering verbal abuse: being male, Native American, MSW student, having 3-5 years' experience, and receiving more training in field seminar, the field agency and sources other than the social work program. When 18 factors were entered individually to check for factors that most significantly predict occurrence of verbal abuse, four factors were significant: being male, interning in a mental health setting, making 11 or more home visits, and interning in an alcohol/substance abuse setting.

Bivariate hypotheses analyses completed previously in this study indicated that making increased home visits, working in an alcohol/substance abuse setting, and having more field agency training contributed to increased threats of lawsuits. When a step-wise multiple regression analysis was completed to determine the best predictors of occurrence of threats of lawsuits, it was found that being 25-30 years old, being of mixed ethnic heritage, making more home visits, and interning in an alcohol/substance abuse setting all significantly predicted occurrence of threats of lawsuit.

Previous bivariate hypotheses analyses indicated that being of mixed ethnic heritage, being a student in a mixed minority supervision dyad and having more field agency training were strongly associated with students encountering damage to their personal or professional property. Multiple regression analysis showed that being male, having a mixed minority supervision dyad, and interning in a mental health/psychiatric setting significantly predicted property damage.



### *Summary of Fear as Mediator Hypotheses*

The second series of hypotheses were related to analyzing whether fear of future violence mediated between experience of client violence and occupational commitment. A precondition for full mediation to occur was for client violence and occupational commitment to be significantly related. Though there was no hypothesis for this step, it was projected that any correlations would be negative. For this step, Pearson's correlations were calculated between the six direct client violence variables and the six indirect exposures to client violence variables and the three types of occupational commitment. There were no significant correlations between any type of direct or indirect violence and affective, normative, or continuance commitment.

A four step mediator analysis had been planned initially. However, because the first step of the mediator analysis found no significant relationships between all of the types of direct and indirect violence and the three types of occupational commitment, it was not appropriate to proceed with the other three steps of the mediator analysis. In other words, experience with client violence did not significantly affect the students' perceptions concerning their commitment to the profession of social work. Since there was no relationship to be mediated, further planned steps were not required.

Though fear of future violence was not found to mediate the relationship between client violence and occupational commitment or career withdrawal intentions and the mediator analyses were thus not completed, the hypotheses were analyzed, as proposed. Hypothesis 2-1 projected that client violence would have a positive effect on fear of future violence. Pearson's correlations between every type of violence and general fear of

future client violence were positive and significant for every type of violence except physical assault. Correlations between every type of violence and specific fears of the same type of violence were even more strongly positive and significant. Indirect exposures to every type of client violence were positively and significantly correlated with general fear of future violence for every type of violence. Indirect exposures to client violence were even more strongly and positively related to fears of the specific type of violence to which the student had been exposed. Hypothesis 2-1 was accepted for every type of direct client violence and every type of indirect exposure to client violence.

Hypothesis 2-2 projected that fear of future violence would have a negative effect on occupational commitment. All correlations between fear of specific types of future violence and affective commitment were negative, but only two types of fear approached significance. Fear of physical assault were related to affective commitment at the .01 probability level and fear of threatened harm was related at the .05 probability level; however, after Bonferroni adjustments, the correlations did not meet the required level of significance.

The next series of Pearson's correlations for Hypothesis 2-2 was done between specific fear of future client violence and normative commitment. Fears of all specific types of violence were positively and significantly correlated with normative commitment. The final series of correlations were calculated between specific fears of future violence and continuance commitment. Fears of every specific type of future violence were positively and significantly correlated with continuance commitment. Since none of the correlations between fear and affective commitment reached the

required level of significance and since the relationships between fear and normative commitment and continuance commitment, though significant, were not in the projected direction, Hypothesis 2-2 was rejected in every case.

The final hypothesis, 2-3, projected that fear of future violence would have a negative effect on career withdrawal intentions. Pearson's correlations were calculated between fears of specific types of client violence and career turnover intentions. There were no significant correlations, thus this hypothesis was rejected for every type of fear of future violence.

In summary, findings indicated that all types of direct and indirect exposure to client violence significantly increased fear of future violence. Furthermore, fear of future violence was then found to significantly increase students' normative and continuance commitment.

### *Discussion*

#### *Gender and Client Violence*

This study found that males encountered significantly more threats of harm and they experienced more verbal abuse and sum of total violence at levels that approached significance, yet they did not encounter significantly higher levels of physical assault, threat of lawsuit, or property damage. This is partially supported in the literature. Most previous research points to males generally encountering more violence, though violence in most studies is not broken down into the different types (Guterman et al., 1996; Jayarante et al., 1995; Jayarante et al., 2004; Newhill, 1996; Ringstad, 2005). Carmel and Hunter (1991) speculated that male workers encountering more violence in a psychiatric

setting might be due to a belief that male staff should be involved in clinical situations with a potential for violence. Additionally, they stated that for cultural reasons, both patients and staff might react differently when male staff was involved. Newhill (1996) speculated that males may have higher incidents of client violence because they have a higher willingness to work in settings where there is more likelihood of more dangerous clients. In the current study it was found that males are significantly more likely to feel prepared to handle client violence. It may be that their level of perceived preparedness may lead them to undertake roles in more dangerous settings or with more dangerous clients. The current study also found that a larger percentage of males work in alcohol/substance abuse settings and mental health/psychiatric settings than females and these settings were among the most dangerous for social work students.

#### *Age and Client Violence*

This study found that older traditional aged students, those aged 25-30, have higher rates of overall violence and three specific types of violence. This group is also more likely to be threatened with lawsuits at levels that approach significance. The mixed finding that some younger, aged 25-30, social work students do experience more client violence, yet some even younger, under 25, social work students don't experience more client violence is somewhat supported in the literature. The largest body of literature on social work practitioners' experience with client violence has found that younger social workers experience more violence (Beaver, 1998; Guterman et al., 1996; Jayarante et al., 1995; Jayarante et al. 2004; Song, 2005). However, Newhill (1996) did not find a

significant relationship between the age of the social work practitioner and client violence.

Only two social work student studies have explored the correlation between age and client violence and they have conflicting findings. Elwood and Rey (1996) found that age did not affect experience with client violence. However, the age categories used for that study were different in that students under 30 were all in one category, unlike the present study where this age group was subdivided. Tully and colleagues (1993) found that younger student clinicians were less likely to experience client violence than “professionally seasoned MSWs” (p. 197). Though this statement is not well explained in the study, it is presumed that the researchers are referencing the ages of students versus the ages of the field educators who were also questioned. Tully and colleagues speculated that younger students may be protected from violence by their status as students. Since the current study included only students, it cannot be stated that they are sheltered from violence due to their student status. However, it may be possible that younger traditional aged students, those under age 24, may be sheltered from some violent encounters due to links with the specific expectations for BSW students versus MSW students. BSW students are trained to be generalist practitioners, which may call more on their roles to link, broker, and manage cases. These roles may mean that there is more mezzo and macro level client contact, which may reduce the amount of direct contact with potentially violent clients. Knight’s (1996) study provided some support for this theory, reporting that BSW students in the study had limited exposure to some practice activities in which other workers in the agencies engaged on a routine basis. It was surmised that

the students might be shielded from potentially violent practice situations. This will be further discussed under the section Degree Program and Client Violence.

On the opposite end of the age spectrum there is a possible explanation for students over 30 experiencing less client violence. Older students may take more precautions to protect themselves from client violence. Castellanos (1998) found a significant positive correlation between the age of child welfare workers and the number of current personal safety practices employed, indicating that as age increased, workers were increasingly likely to make efforts to protect themselves. Another possible explanation for older students experiencing less violence may be found in SchwarzmueLLer's (1998) study of MSW students. This researcher found that there was a negative association between age and the extent to which students felt physically threatened during home visits. This indicates that as age increased, social work students were less likely to feel physically threatened during home visits. When a student feels less physically threatened there may be less feelings of vulnerability in the student and thus, a greater ability to share power with clients, reducing the possibility that the client will act out violently.

#### *Work Experience and Client Violence*

The finding that trended toward significance that social work students with 3-5 years of paid social work experience were exposed to more verbal abuse and summed client violence than students with no experience has not been supported in the literature. Most articles that report on the effect of worker experience on client violence have found that those with less experience encounter more violence (Bernstein, 1981; Beaver, 1998;

Guterman et al., 1996; Privitera et al., 2005; Tully et al., 1993). However, others have not found a significant relationship between experience and client violence (Jayarante et al., 1995; Newhill, 1996; Ringstad, 2005).

In the current study, chi square tests were performed to more specifically assess characteristics of students with 3-5 years experience to determine if other factors may be influencing this finding. Indeed, many of the characteristics of the students with 3-5 years' experience have been found elsewhere in this study to contribute to exposure to client violence. Students with this moderate level of experience are significantly more likely to be aged 25-30, MSW students, and in some of the practice settings that have been found to be the most dangerous: schools, alcohol/substance abuse settings, and mental health/psychiatric settings. Though not of statistical significance, several other factors were found to be elevated in the group of students with 3-5 years' experience. They were more likely to be students who were male, Asian, Native American, of mixed ethnic heritage, or Black. They also are likely to make increased home visits and to work more evening hours.

Guterman and colleagues (1996) found that although less experienced social workers in the U.S. encountered more client violence, this was not the case with social workers in Israel. The researchers surmised that the difference might be due to differences in the workplace, stating that in Israel, workers may have less opportunity to advance in an agency; thus, they may have fewer choices concerning the clientele with whom they will work. Applying some of this argument to the students in this study, it

may be that as students, clients are more carefully chosen for them, so less experienced students may be less likely to be victimized.

As with the age hypothesis and as was surmised by Tully and colleagues (1993) in their study of BSW and MSW students, it is possible that those students with no experience are somewhat more sheltered by their field agency from immediately rendering direct service to clients due to their student status. Perhaps they may have a tendency to shadow other workers prior to being required to function independently. Additionally, they may be given more time to acclimate to an agency, whereas students with a few more years of experience may be presumed to be already prepared to begin giving direct, independent service to clients.

#### *Ethnicity and Client Violence*

The finding that some ethnic minority groups experience more client violence has been only briefly alluded to in the literature (Butt, 2000, as cited in Brockman, 2002). In a book chapter about discrimination in social services in England, it was reported that of Black and Asian social service workers who had been verbally abused, approximately half attributed a racial motive to the abuse, compared with 2% of the White staff (Aye Maung & Mirrles-Black, 1994, as cited in Davey, 1999). In the current study one Black female wrote in that the verbal abuse she had encountered was racially motivated.

Only four social work studies have mentioned analyses of ethnicity and client violence. Three national random social work practitioner studies found that race was not a significant predictor of client violence (Beaver, 1999; Jayarante et al. 2004; Ringstad, 2005). However, Beaver (1999) found that Native American social workers had the



highest rate of violence (50%), which was almost the same rate of summed client violence of Native American students in the current study (53.8%). One student study included approximately 108 minority students and found that there was no relationship between race and likelihood of being assaulted (Knight, 1996). This study did not mention whether the minority ethnic groups were differentiated so it is unknown if they were analyzed by specific group or as an entire group. One other study of workplace assaults on minority health and mental health care workers found that race was a weak predictor of assault (Sullivan & Yuan, 1995).

Further analyses between the student race variable and other demographic variables indicated Native American students may suffer more client violence in part because they work more evening hours, they work in more violent settings, and a larger percentage are male. Mixed heritage students may encounter more violence because of being in more dangerous practice settings.

It is of interest that larger minority groups, Blacks and Hispanics, did not encounter violence at significantly higher levels. In fact, Hispanic students in this study encountered the least amount of violence. Rather, the minority students who were most victimized by client violence were from even smaller racial/ethnic groups. These groups are less represented in U.S. Perhaps these students were practicing in areas where their differences are more noticed and perhaps where they are more vulnerable to discrimination. It was not possible to discover more about this, as there were no questions concerning the geographic location of the students.

The findings about ethnicity affecting exposure to client violence should be interpreted cautiously due to the low numbers of ethnic minority students in this study and because there may be other factors contributing to client violence other than ethnicity. However, because most other client violence studies have not considered the possibility that non-White people may suffer more client violence, the ethnicity findings from the current study should not be easily dismissed.

#### *Degree Program and Client Violence*

Contrary to the thought that BSW students would experience more client violence, it was found that MSW students actually experienced significantly more threats of physical harm and they experienced summed client violence at a level that approached significance. The two social work practitioner client violence studies that addressed educational level did not support the educational level findings from the current study (Beaver, 1998; Privitera et al., 2005). However, it should be noted that those studies included social workers who were older and had more years of experience and in Beaver's study, the largest group of practitioners were in private, for profit settings. Additionally in Beaver's study only 20 social work practitioners had a BSW degree and in Privitera and colleagues' study, only 13 were BSW's.

The only student study to include both MSW and BSW students found no significant differences between MSW and BSW students in encounters with violence (Tully et al., 1993). Thus the current study is the only student study that has indicated that MSW students had higher amounts of certain types of client violence. It is possible that MSW students encounter more client violence due to being in practicum longer.

However, it may be that MSW students are placed in agencies where they are more often expected to make independent clinical decisions. The MSW students in this study were more than two times as likely to be in mental health/psychiatric settings as BSW students and being in a mental health/psychiatric setting was one of the four significant predictors that client violence would occur. As mentioned in an earlier hypothesis discussion, the largest group of MSW students in this study had 3-5 years of experience. It is possible that field agencies feel comfortable with placing MSW students more immediately into direct clinical practice where they may be more likely to encounter potentially violent clients. Finally, there are differences between the expectations for BSW students compared to MSW students. BSW students may be in roles that involve less direct clinical work, as discussed in previous results sections.

#### *Place of Client Violence*

It was not possible to inferentially examine the possibility that violence occurs more often in one setting than another. However, it was found that the most recent occurrence of every type of violence except physical assault was in the office. This finding resonates with the findings of the two student client violence studies (Mama, 2001; Tully et al., 1993). It also somewhat confirms Newhill and Wexler's (1997) finding that different types of violence occur in different places. In both Newhill and Wexler's study and the current study, property damage occurred most often in the office and physical assault happened in various places. The current study showed that the most recent incident of threatened physical harm occurred most often in the office, replicating Rapp-Paglicci's (2004) finding concerning probation officer's exposure to violence;

however, this finding refuted Newhill and Wexler's (1997) finding that threats of physical harm occurred most often in the homes of the child and youth workers' clients.

Of students who made home visits, those who made increased visits experienced total client violence and threats of lawsuits at rates that trended toward significance than students who made fewer home visits. This finding resonates with other studies that have found that large percentages of home visiting social workers have experienced client violence while making home visits (Castellanos, 1998; Vergara, 1998). Barling, Rogers, and Kelloway (2001) stated that when workers see clients in their clients' home, access to the protection that might be offered in a traditional office setting may be delayed or limited. They further stated that in-home workers may be forced to rely on their own resources to avoid or lessen the impact of violence that may be incurred upon them in the home. Isolation of social workers on home visits is seen as a problem that may lead to greater exposure to client violence.

While many strategies can be employed to reduce risk of client violence on home visits, social work students may not have had ample time to practice these techniques and may lack confidence to implement them. Knight (1999) found in a pretest and posttest about anxieties related to risk of violence in the social work practicum that more than one third of the 78 BSW students continued to be anxious about making home visits, even at the end of the field experience.

No other studies have found that social workers experience more threats of lawsuits when they make increased home visits. Perhaps the increased threats of lawsuit could be associated with the practice settings of workers making increased home visits.

The highest percentage of social work students making 11 or more home visits interned in child/youth/child protection settings. Though the current study did not find this setting to be statistically associated with threats of lawsuit, it might be inferred that while making increased visits in the client's home setting, students may be more vulnerable to threats of lawsuit. Parents may feel that in their own homes, they can threaten legal recourse without compromising the possibility of having their children returned to them on a permanent basis.

#### *Time of Client Violence*

Though time of client violence could not be evaluated inferentially, it was possible to find that, at levels that approached significance, students who worked increased amounts of evening hours experienced more physical assault than students working less evening hours. One epidemiology study of violent injury in the workplace similarly found that workers in many occupations experience more homicide and nonfatal assault in the afternoon and evening hours (Kraus, 1996). No social work studies could be located indicating that the time of day significantly influences experience of client violence.

In the current study it is possible that increased client violence during evening hours may be influenced by the practice settings of the students who worked more evening hours. The practice settings where students were likely to work increased evening hours were criminal justice settings, which had the highest mean of overall violent incidents, and alcohol/substance abuse settings, which was one of the settings with highest rate of overall client violence.

### *Practice Setting and Client Violence*

Though there were no significant findings after the Bonferroni adjustments regarding practice settings that might be more dangerous, there were findings that approached significance that indicated that three settings were the most dangerous for the social work students: mental health/psychiatric, alcohol/substance abuse, and developmental disabilities. The finding that there were higher rates of violence in mental health settings has been supported in the literature. Jayarante and colleagues (1995) found that social work practitioners in institutional mental health settings had the largest number of physical threats. He and other colleagues again found in 2004 that mental health settings were among the most dangerous. Ringstad's (2005) study concurred with this finding. No previous social work student studies have asked about specific types of practice settings.

Many studies have not included alcohol/substance abuse settings in their list of possible practice settings, thus the finding that social work students encountered more violence in alcohol/substance abuse settings has only been echoed in one other study (Newhill, 1996). The finding that social work students experience significantly more threats of lawsuit in alcohol/substance abuse settings has been similarly found by Jayarante and colleagues (1995). They found that substance abuse social workers experienced the second highest rate of threats of lawsuit. Since many substance abuse clients are court ordered, it may be that clients feel they can risk threatening lawsuit against a social worker whereas if they were to be more blatant in their threats or actions, they might fear incurring more severe legal sanctions.

No American studies could be found that analyzed experience of client violence in social workers from developmentally disability settings. The only study that included developmental disability workers had only 13 workers in this category, so the category was excluded from further analysis (Jayarante et al., 2004). A study of Canadian developmental disability workers indicated that in Canada, the rate of injury in the developmental services sector was higher than the rate of injury in other social service settings (Baines, 2004). Though there is very limited evidence that indicates that social workers in developmental disability settings experience higher rates of violence, the current study finds otherwise. Clients who are developmentally disabled may have less internal controls, thus more propensity for impulsivity which could lead to more violent incidents.

The current study did not find child welfare settings to be among the most dangerous for social work students. This conflicts with numerous other studies that have shown child welfare types of settings to be most dangerous (Jayarante et al., 2004; Newhill, 1996; Schultz, 1987). It is possible that the lack of findings in this area may be related to more BSW students in the current study being in child welfare settings and BSW students were found in the present study to experience less violence. The lack of findings might also be attributed partially to the fact the students in child/youth/child protection setting had the second highest amount of safety training in their field agencies. It is possible that previous research into child welfare settings and anecdotal evidence of workers being severely harmed in these settings may have contributed to workers having increased effective training in this setting.

### *Field Educator/Student Race Supervision Dyads and Client Violence*

No studies of any kind have explored a possible relationship between client violence and the racial match of supervision dyads. Thus, the finding that students in mixed minority racial/ethnic supervision dyads experienced significantly more property damage and higher rates of every type of client violence is a new finding. The ethnicities of the students in the mixed minority supervision dyads were generally not the ethnicities of students found to experience higher rates of violence (Native Americans and mixed ethnic heritage). In fact, the group of minority students who had field educators of a differing ethnicity was a small, but mixed group. Three fourths of these students were not part of ethnic groups that were found in the current study to experience more client violence. This is significant because it indicates that the students in the mixed minority dyads may not experience less violence solely because they are in a minority group that might be victimized at higher levels. Though other factors could explain why these students experienced more violence, it is plausible to consider that some aspect of the supervision relationship could have contributed to having more experience with violence. The findings concerning mixed minority supervision dyads should be interpreted with caution, since so few students are represented in these dyads. However, since there is such a paucity of information about cross cultural supervision, the finding should not be disregarded, as it may contribute some baseline data.

### *Training and Client Violence*

The finding that students who have more training in the field agency, field seminar and places other than the social work program have increased amounts types of



client violence was not anticipated. Though no social work practitioner studies have looked at the relationship between safety training and client violence, virtually every client violence study recommends training. Only one social work student study compared the experience of training and client violence in social work students versus medical students (Elwood & Rey, 1996). Only descriptive information was reported and it indicated that social work students experienced less violence than medical students and social work students had more training in violence prevention than the medical students.

Possible explanations of the finding that more training is related to more violence may be found in analyses completed in the study. For example, some of the practice settings offering the most training also had the highest amounts of client violence. Males also were more likely to receive more training and they also encountered more client violence. It may be that the finding of more training being related to more client violence occurred in part because practice settings that are known to be more dangerous practice settings actually are providing more training to be prepared for this potential violence and regardless of the training, client violence persists. If this is the case, we do not know how much violence may have occurred if no training was offered.

Training variable analyses indicated that three of the content areas with the strongest correlations with client violence were physical techniques for self protection, physical signs that violence is imminent, and verbal de-escalation. Actually, two of these content areas, physical techniques and recognizing physical signs of violence, were the least likely content areas to be covered by the social work programs. In other words, very small percentages of social work students received training in these areas; however, these

content areas appeared to have strong influence over the finding that more training relates to more violence. These three content areas are often found in aggression control courses. It may be that field agencies where potential for client violence is higher may offer more intense training on self defense, thus, the finding that more client violence occurs when there is more training could be a result of the particular type of training that is emphasized. Again, we have no knowledge of how much violence would have occurred nor how many injuries may have occurred had there been no training with these content areas.

Finally, younger, less experienced BSW students were more likely to receive safety training in the academic part of the social work program (social work practice classes and field seminar), whereas MSW students with 3-5 years' experience and aged 25-30 had less training within the academic parts of the social work program. The latter group is the most likely group to encounter client violence. For MSW students with 3-5 years' experience and aged 25-30, it appears that having less training relates to encountering increased violence. This finding may relate to assumptions that educators and agencies have about advanced level students with a few years' experience. It may also relate to the nature of field seminar for BSW students versus MSW students. If discussions in field seminar strictly revolve around case presentations, perhaps there is not enough opportunity to discuss more practical, yet necessary issues such as safety and violence.

### *Client Violence and Occupational Commitment*

When direct and indirect client violence variables were correlated with the three subscales of occupational commitment, only one of 36 possible correlations approached significance. Physical assault was positively correlated with normative commitment. No previous studies have directly examined the relationship between client violence and occupational commitment. One study of nurses indicated that job tensions are negatively related to career (occupational) commitment (Cohen, A. 1999) and a meta-analysis of 76 studies on occupational commitment indicated that job stress is negatively related to occupational commitment (Lee et al., 2000), indicating that stressful events may be related to reduced occupational commitment. Conversely, affective commitment and normative occupational commitment have been found to be positively related with positive training experiences in student nurses (Meyer et al., 1993). The current study indicates that occupational commitment is largely unaffected by the stressful event of client violence. However, it does indicate when students are physically assaulted they have increased commitment possibly due to a sense of obligation or responsibility to the profession of social work.

The finding that even when students directly or indirectly encounter client violence, it largely does not affect their occupational commitment is somewhat surprising. Only one other study has reported occupational commitment with students in training and this study found that student nurses' affective and normative commitment actually decreased over the course of their training (Meyer et al., 1993). In the current study, the affective commitment for all the social work students was near the maximum

affective commitment that could be scored. Because of the timing of the questionnaire and the amount of practicum hours that both the BSW and MSW students noted on the questionnaire, it is presumed that the majority of these students were near the end of their degree program. Thus it could be surmised that as most of this group of social work students are ready to graduate, they are extremely proud of their identity as professional social workers. This may speak to the professional socialization of social work students in social work education programs. Something very positive must be occurring in social work programs and in field agencies for students to have such a high level of affective commitment, even in the midst of client violence.

#### *Client Violence and Career Withdrawal Intentions*

There were no significant correlations between direct or indirect violence and career withdrawal intentions. Two previous social work studies have indicated that there may be a relationship between client violence and career withdrawal intentions. A study from England looked at career patterns of social work graduates from 4 different years spanning 12 years and found that for the people who had left the profession, work related factors played a major role (Lyons et al., 1995). Specifically, they found that the 12% of respondents who were still in social work positions and who had experienced violence and abuse had considered leaving the profession as a result and 25% of those who had left the profession stated that experiencing violence was an important factor in their decision to leave. A likely reason for the difference in findings is that Lyons and colleagues followed social workers several years after graduation and the present study questioned them prior to graduation. Lyons and colleagues pointed out that most of their

sample had entered social work after graduation. They stated, "...people who have just invested a great deal of time and effort to become qualified social workers are very unlikely not to enter the profession after qualifying even if only for a relatively short period of time" (p. 179).

One student study in the U.S. found that of students who had experienced client violence almost 8% said that they were re-thinking their career in social work as a result of the client violence incident (Knight, 1996). Though the measures used in this study were different than the ones used in the present study, it is possible to draw some comparisons. In the current study of those students who were physically assaulted, none had medium to high levels of career withdrawal intentions. Of students who were threatened with physical harm, 9.6% had moderate to high levels of turnover intentions. Approximately 14% of the students who experienced the other types of client violence had moderate to high levels of career turnover intentions. Thus the turnover intentions in this study were somewhat comparable to the turnover cognitions mentioned in Knight's (1996) study and the turnover cognitions mentioned in the study by Lyons and colleagues (1995).

#### *Client Violence and Fear of Future Violence*

In the present study, every type of direct client violence was significantly correlated with fear of future violence and indirect client violence was even more strongly correlated with fear of future violence. These findings have been heard and seen in numerous studies. Guy and Brady (1998) reported that fear of future victimization was the most frequently reported emotional consequence of psychotherapists who were

victims of physical attack. Song (2005) found that past victimization by clients significantly contributed to fear of future victimization. Three qualitative articles all found between 50-90% of victims of client violence who were child welfare workers or mental health workers were fearful of further violence at work (Atkinson, 1991; Littlechild, 2005; Snow, 1994). Waters and Morgan (2002) stated that with workplace violence there is a tendency to fear returning to the site of victimization. Newhill and Wexler (1997) found that more than a third of those who had been attacked were scared or felt fear. Similar to the current study, they reported that twice this amount of workers were scared or fearful, even if they had not been directly attacked. Horwitz (2006) found that vicariously experienced events were more strongly associated with traumatic effects than events directly experienced. The research stated that perhaps more dramatic verbal abuse threatened by a client was more promptly and thoroughly processed, which might give the worker more of a sense of control over whether the event might reoccur, whereas vicarious events reflect the social worker's lack of control.

One social work student client violence study reported on several factors related to fear (Knight, 1996). It was found that 90% of the students who had encountered client violence felt that they would be more cautious in their work, 40% felt that they would avoid certain practice situations and 12.9% said that they would be more fearful in their work. In the current study students who had encountered client violence were significantly more likely to report more fear of that specific type of violence. Those who experienced threats of physical harm, threat of lawsuit, and property damage were twice as likely as those who didn't experience those types of violence to agree that they were

afraid of the same type of violence in the future. Depending on the type of violence, between 24% and 60% of the students who had experienced a type of violence were afraid of that type of violence occurring again. This is substantially higher than the percentage of client violence victims that Knight reported as having fear in their work. At least part of the reason for the major differences in proportions of students who were afraid of future violence could be because students in the current study were asked about specific fears.

#### *Fear of Future Violence and Occupational Commitment*

No previous studies have explored the possible relationship between fear of future violence and occupational commitment. The present study indicates that fear of physical assault and fear of threats of physical harm were negatively related to affective commitment at probability levels that approach significance, yet fear of every type of client violence was positively and significantly related to normative and continuance commitment. Similar to the current study, fear of future client violence has been found to be negatively related to organizational affective commitment, implying that fear of violence is related to a lessening of pride in and identification with the job (Barling et al., 2001; Rogers & Kelloway, 1997). Though organizational affective commitment and occupational commitment are different constructs, they have been found to be positively correlated in 10 articles measuring both in the North America (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2003), so while the finding above (concerning organizational commitment) may not directly correspond with the finding in the current study, it may marginally support the current finding.

In reference to the finding that normative commitment was found to be positive while affective commitment was found to be negative, one of the authors of the occupational commitment scale used in this study states in a meta-analysis of organizational commitment that affective commitment and normative commitment have a strong natural link and typically would be correlated positively (Meyer et al., 2003). However, it is acknowledged that there is a possibility that an employee can experience an obligation to pursue a course of action (normative commitment) in the absence of the desire to do so (affective commitment). The same meta-analysis indicates that continuance commitment is typically negatively related to affective commitment and normative commitment. The three types of commitment need to be examined in relationship with each other to understand more about the overall occupational commitment.

In the current study, it appears that students who have fear of future physical assault and fear of threat of physical harm, whether or not they have actually experienced these events, have less feelings of strong identity with the profession of social work. At the same time, they have more normative commitment, or commitment as a result of obligation or responsibility. They additionally have more continuance commitment or commitment because they have already invested so much into their degree program and the profession of social work. The overall picture of this contains a cautionary note. When students experience violence, they may not have less occupational commitment. However, when they have greater fear of future client violence, especially if they have never actually experienced client violence, their commitment to the profession of social



work may be coming from a sense of obligation (normative commitment), perhaps instilled through professional socialization, and a sense that they have already invested too much time, money and effort to turn back (continuance commitment). These latter two types of commitment are unlikely to sustain them in the profession of social work over the long run.

#### *Fear of Future Violence and Career Withdrawal Intentions*

No studies have reported specifically on fear of future violence and how it may affect career turnover intentions. Workplace violence studies have largely reported on how fear of future violence may affect organizational turnover intentions. One social work study predicted that fear of future violence would have a positive direct effect on organizational turnover intentions, however, there was a nonsignificant path between the two (Song, 2005). As with the discussion of organizational versus occupational commitment, there may be some similarities between organizational turnover intentions and career turnover intentions, but they are not the same construct. However, it could be noted that the findings of Song's study were similar to the current study in that fear of future violence did not significantly affect organizational withdrawal intentions.

#### *Fear of Future Violence as Mediator*

No studies have previously explored the possibility of fear of violence mediating the relationship between client violence and occupational commitment. In the current study fear of future physical assault was not found to mediate the relationship between client violence and occupational commitment, because no significant relationship was found between the client violence and occupational commitment, thus there was no

relationship to be mediated. Some previous studies have shown that fear of future violence mediates between workplace violence or client violence and decreased organizational commitment (Barling et al., 2001; Song, 2005). However, other studies have not found fear of future violence to mediate between violence and organizational commitment (Rogers & Kelloway, 1997). Previous studies have additionally found that fear of future violence mediated the relationship between workplace violence and organizational turnover intentions (Barling et al., 2001; Rogers & Kelloway, 1997).

In the present study all of the relationships between client violence and occupational commitment or career withdrawal intentions were nonsignificant. Thus there were no existing relationships to be mediated. However, other analyses in this study showed that direct and indirect experiences with client violence consistently were related to increased fear. Fear was then significantly related to occupational commitment, though it was not related to career turnover intentions. to summarize, it cannot be substantiated that fear mediates the relationship between client violence and occupational commitment. However, fears of future violence do have significant relationships with occupational commitment in this sample of social work students.

### *Implications for Social Work Education*

#### *Micro Level Planning and Intervention*

*Field placement and practice considerations.* The personal demographic factors in this study that may affect increased exposure to client violence need to be acknowledged by both field directors and field educators both during the process of placing students and during the completion of the field practicum. Students need to be

aware of factors that may tend to increase exposure to client violence. Greater awareness could cue students to use greater caution with the client, especially in situations where there is a felt disequilibrium of power between the client and the social work student.

When practicum settings are discussed with students, field directors need to be able to share what efforts the practicum site has made to ensure safety of its employees and practicum students. This of course will require that field agencies inform field directors of these safety measures and policies.

Field agencies that require frequent home visits need to be responsible to train students specifically on safety precautions to take when visiting a client in their home. When possible, students should accompany more seasoned social workers when beginning the practice of home visiting.

Field directors and instructors should additionally show due concern when allowing a student to complete a placement predominantly during evening hours. Students should be aware of possible increased risk of violence, particularly when the practicum setting is a setting more prone to have violent encounters during evening hours.

*Field faculty consultation to students.* It may be helpful for field faculty to offer individual debriefing and support to a student who has encountered client violence (Digiulio, 2000). This can supplement any debriefing that may be done by the agency. Because of the possible negative effect of indirect exposure to violence, it may also be necessary for the field faculty to debrief other students who fear becoming victims of violence.

*Use of field seminar to support students.* Discussion about violence should be encouraged in field seminar (Dunkel, Ageson, & Ralph, 2000). Social work students in the current study had significant fears about both violence that occurred and violence that they had heard about or witnessed and these fears were beginning to impact their feelings about being a social worker. Snow's (1994) sample of home visiting social workers noted that having a person available to talk with helped them to process when violence had occurred to them. They recommended the use of support groups and peer supervision. Knight (1999) found that over 90% of the social work students she questioned had talked with other students about their anxieties related to field. This demonstrates that there is value in the ongoing support that students can receive when they meet and talk openly about their fears of victimization.

The small amount of students in this study having safety training in field seminar begs the question of what types of issues are routinely discussed in field seminar. Additionally, it appears that field seminar may be used for different purposes for MSW students than BSW students, as BSW students have more opportunities for safety training in field seminar than MSW students. Perhaps the focus in MSW field seminars may be more on case specific clinical issues, leaving little time for discussion of various dynamics of the field placement. Few places could be healthier settings to discuss fears of violence and actual violent incidents that have occurred in the practicum. Field seminar facilitators in both MSW and BSW programs are encouraged to cautiously open the field seminar agenda to include processing of issues related to client violence.

Because exposure to graphic violence material may leave listening students vulnerable to feelings of fear and anxiety, caution should be exercised when allowing this material to be discussed in field seminar. Cunningham (2004) suggests introducing students to the concept of vicarious traumatization to help them understand possible reactions to trauma materials. She also discusses several strategies to balance the need to expose students to traumatic case material while reducing the risk for other students to be traumatized by listening. One such strategy is for the instructor to elicit students' feelings and responses to material presented, inviting reactions and modeling responses to the material. This gives them an opportunity to process any feelings they may be having.

#### *Mezzo Level Planning and Intervention*

*Field agency selection.* Section 2.1.3 of CSWE curriculum standards notes that it is the responsibility of the social work field education program to specify policies, criteria and procedures for selecting and maintaining field educators and to evaluate agency effectiveness in providing field instruction (CSWE, 2003). A university may be liable for the selection of field sites and ensuring that the field site offers proper protection and encourages safety precautions (Digiulio, 2001). The social work program should be careful when screening new potential field sites. Reeser and Wertkin (2001) suggest that social work schools place students only in field placements that have previously paid attention to the safety of clients, staff and students. It is essential that agencies have policies and procedures for social work safety and a mechanism to orient new workers to these procedures (Rey, 1996).

*Agency policies and procedures.* Adamson found that the agency's response to a crisis determined a more negative impact than the incident itself (2006). He further stated that "we individualize the impact of stress and trauma at our peril" (p.58). It is essential that the field practice organizations intentionally address ways to both prevent workplace violence and to address the effects when it occurs. It is important that they have environmental safeguards, with a zero tolerance for violence (Reeser & Wertkin, 2001). Additionally, agencies should have a clearly delineated protocol for handling potentially violent and dangerous situations (Jayarante et al., 2004).

When client violence has occurred, agency procedures must include a formal process for reporting violence (Jayarante et al., 2004). Policies may also include a consideration of temporary relief of duty or decreasing the workload (Snow, 1994). The student should be encouraged to seek medical attention if necessary.

Agency procedures should include practices that could help to decrease the likelihood of exposure to client violence. Suggestions have included having all students to carry a cell phone with them during the time they are in the practicum and doing home visits during regular business hours (Castellanos, 1998). Agency procedures should recognize the importance of creating a safe office space and the establishment of offices where there is easy access to help and escape (Jayarante et al., 2004).

*Ongoing safety training within the agency.* Many field educators have stated that they did not receive adequate training or preparation on dealing with personal safety issues prior to entering the field. This has also been found to be true with social work

practitioners in general. This being the case, schools of social work can develop continuing education opportunities related to safety for practitioners (Tully et al., 1993).

It is important that agencies provide formal staff meetings and/or trainings to discuss client violence on a regular basis. It is recommended that safety training be updated at least annually (Mama, 2001; Newhill, 1996; Vergaras, 2006). It has been found that frequent training can increase the possibility of avoiding assaults (Carmel & Hunter, 1990). In their study on client violence toward child welfare workers, Horejsic and Garthwait (1994) stated that training once a year would constantly remind staff of potential dangerous situations and procedures for handling them.

*Social work education's curriculum on violence.* Some researchers have suggested requiring a specific course to address violence and safety issues (Reeser & Wertkin, 2001). Perhaps realizing the difficulty of adding another course to an already full curriculum in many schools, some have suggested the alternative of infusing this content across the social work curriculum (Reeser & Wertkin, 2001; O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998; Tully et al., 1993). Maidment (2003) proposed a field education work safety curriculum that could be implemented across two years of field placement. This plan suggests specific work safety content and assignments that can be completed beginning in pre-placement and continuing at various intervals throughout the field placement. Ellison (1996) suggested this subject could be discussed in practice courses, human behavior courses and policy courses, believing that exposure in the classroom would better prepare students to face the realities of practice. This would require program faculty to

coordinate their efforts in this area. They should know how safety issues are taught in the field practicum, as well as in other courses (Faria & Kendra, 2007).

*Content of safety training curriculum.* This study surprisingly found that increased training in the various parts of the social work program was related to increased client violence. It appears that this finding may be partially related to practicum settings. Those practicum settings that are more dangerous may be the same agencies that provide more training, especially in content areas related to self defense or aggression control. Sarkisian and Portwood (2002) point out that “training methods suggested to date may serve to strengthen the workers’ defenses and begin to resolve the discrepancy between reported and actual incidents against workers, but such measures in no way reduce the likelihood that workers will become the target of violence” (p. 48). They go on to suggest that helping social workers develop a more thorough understanding of environmental and systemic influences that may heighten the chances of client violence may give a more realistic picture of client violence. They recommend that social work practitioners and students need to understand more about systemic barriers to client empowerment and where opportunities may exist for client empowerment as a major mechanism for reducing violence.

This raises challenging choices concerning safety training for social work students. Do we continue to design or support trainings that are oriented toward self defense in agencies that we know to be more dangerous, thus placing the bulk of responsibility for protecting self in the hands of the workers themselves? Or do we design more training that is designed to teach practitioners and students how to empower clients,



thus equalizing the power and authority in worker-client relationships, perhaps reducing the possibility of client violence? It seems that we must do both. Social work students need to continue to be taught how to disarm threatening situations by using empowerment techniques. However, the reality of danger cannot be overlooked. In situations where students may encounter more violence, students may need to be exposed to self defense strategies that place greater emphasis on verbal de-escalation.

Numerous safety training content areas have been suggested by previous researchers. Many of the suggestions for training content could serve the purposes of both teaching practitioners how to empower clients to reduce violence and as necessary, equipping practitioners to protect themselves in the event of impending violence. Training suggestions below are arranged in a continuum beginning with client empowerment and proceeding towards ways to respond to violence when it has occurred.

Assessing and understanding of potential lack of client empowerment and opportunities for client empowerment

- Skills of assessment- Present experiences and history of violence in clients (Newhill, 1996; O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998)
- Developing an understanding of the precursors of violence- factors that might lead a client to act violently (Digiulio, 2001; Jayarante, Croxton, & Mattison, 2004; Reeser & Wertkin, 2001; Rey, 1996; Ringstad, 2005)
- Knowing community resources (O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998)
- Advocating on behalf of clients (O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998)
- Advocating effectively for practice conditions favorable for violence prevention (Newhill, 1996)

Understanding how violence may affect victims (Reactions to potential violence) (O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998)

- Learning how to cope actively with stresses; Stress management procedures (Jayarante, Croxton, & Mattison, 2004; Jayarante, Davis-Sacks, Chess, 1991)
- Managing feelings that can arise when working with victims and perpetrators of violence (Rey, 1996). O'Keefe and Mennan state that the student must be able to "deal with the immense emotionality of issues around violence" (p. 95, 1998).
- Examining one's own value system around violence- What are the student's assumptions regarding victims and perpetrators? (O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998)
- Understand how one's own culture impacts client's exposure to violence (O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998; Adamson, 2006; Ringstad, 2005)
- Gaining ability to manage one's own anger (Reeser & Wertkin, 2001)
- Understanding of student's rights ( for example, the right to refuse to make a home visit) (Faria & Kendra, 2007)

Understanding the dynamics of violence

- Recognizing theories of violence and having the ability to apply those theories (O'Keefe and Mennan, 1998; Rey, 1996)
- Understanding the prevalence of different forms and types of violence (Digiulio, 2001; O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998; Reeser and Wertkin, 2001; Rey, 1996)
- Understanding the cycle of violence (O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998)
- Understanding the use and misuse of power and the dynamics to various types of violence (O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998; Ringstad, 2005)

Direct violence prevention tools

- Be able to use techniques on verbal intervention and de-escalation through use of non threatening communication skills; Effective strategies for working with angry, hostile clients (Digiulio, 2001; Jayarante, Croxton, & Mattison, 2004; Knight, 1999; Newhill, 1996; Reeser & Wertkin, 2001)

- Have knowledge of office safety- learning to arrange work space to maximize safety (Digiulio, 2001; Rey, 1996)
- Learn protocols on home visit safety (Digiulio, 2001; Newhill, 1995; Reeser & Wertkin, 2001; Rey, 1996)
- If desired, physical techniques for self protection; Self defense; How to defend one's self in potentially dangerous situations (Castellanos, 1998; Digiulio, 2001; Knight, 1999)

#### Addressing fear of violence or actual violence

- Be able to use supervision and consultation to address issues of client violence (Ringstad, 2005)
- Recognize the value of the peer support group in creating an atmosphere of acceptance and support (Newhill, 1995)
- What to do in the aftermath of a client violence incident- Debriefing and support after an incident (Digiulio, 2001; Faria & Kendra, 2007; Reeser & Wertkin, 2001; Rey, 1996)
- Developing resourcefulness and resilience through self advocacy and negotiation skills (Adamson, 2006)
- Learn procedures for formal recording incidents of violence (Ellison, 1996; Reeser & Wertkin, 2001)

*Methods of training on safety and violence.* The current study indicates that more training may be associated with increased violence. A possible explanation for this is that the training is simply not effective. A synthesis of literature on implementing evidence based practices indicates that practitioners at implementation sites need to know when, where, how, and with whom to best use new skills (Fixen, Naoom, Blasé, Friedman, & Wallace, 2005). Joyce and Showers (as cited in Fixen et al., 2005) found in reviewing numerous studies on training effectiveness that effective training appears to consist of presenting knowledge about a subject, providing a demonstration, and assuring

opportunities to practice the skills in the training setting. The nursing profession has produced several articles on aggression management training effectiveness. One particular model of aggression management training was a three day training that was conducted with first year nursing students (Beech & Leather, 2003). It included knowledge on the subject as well as opportunity to practice the skills. When evaluated longitudinally, the training was found to be effective in sustaining prevention and good management of aggression issues with patients.

Short of using a specific training seminar to address and practice safety skills, other pedagogical methods may be attempted in social work classrooms to reinforce learning about safety and violence issues. Researchers who have written about how to address client violence in the classroom suggest a range of experiential activities.

Methods may include:

- Simulations and role play (Guy & Brady, 1998; Horejsic & Garthwait, 1994; O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998)
- Dramatic re-enactment ( Guy & Brady, 1998)
- Detailed discussion about cases (Guy & Brady, 1998; O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998)
- Small group exercises (O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998)
- Discussion about field experiences (O'Keefe & Mennan, 1998)
- Use of excerpts from popular dramas to illustrate causes of violence and emotions surrounding violence (Rey, 1996)
- Use of actors, both live and on video, to perform client violence situations in social work situation (Leadbetter & Phillips, 1990)
- Bring agency-based social workers into the classroom to explore the realities of violence in social work (Adamson, 2006)

- Provide students with “reality bytes” of context, social work issues, and tensions (Adamson, 2006)

*Training for field educators.* It is the responsibility of social work programs to “provide orientation, field instruction training, and continuing dialog with agencies and field instructors” (CSWE, 2.1.5, 2003, p. 38). Initial field educator orientation should ideally take place before a student is placed at an agency. This orientation should have a component on client violence and safety precautions (Reeser & Wertkin, 2001). Field educators should be encouraged to talk with students about their anxieties when they enter the placement (Knight, 1999). Additionally, they should be encouraged to develop ways to help the student balance safety against professional responsibilities and obligations (Knight, 1996). Suggestions for training of field educators include:

- Ability to validate reactions and feelings when students have been exposed to client violence (Snow, 1994)
- Being aware of students’ individual experience and assessing student readiness for specific field activities (Dunkel et al, 2000; Vergara, 2006)
- The need to consider case transfers, as necessary (Vergara, 2006)
- Specific preparation for home visiting (Dunkel et al, 2001) to include:
  - Knowing the history of the family
  - Knowing who is likely to be home
  - Deciding whether two or more people should make the home visit (Allen & Tracy, 2004)
- Awareness of potential violent situations and clients and sharing this information with students (Guy & Brady, 1998)

- Establishment of a trusting/open relationship with the student, thus creating the possibility of offering advice, support and protection through the mentoring process (Guy & Brady, 1998; Reeser & Wertkin, 2001)
- Being familiar with all of students' cases and assigning cases appropriately (Dunkel et al, 2001; Reeser & Wertkin, 2001).
- Being aware of students' whereabouts (Reeser & Wertkin, 2001)
- Consider providing worker shadowing during the initial phase of the internship (Vergara, 2006)
- Gaining ability to help students cope with fear of future violence as an ongoing long-term process when client violence has occurred
- Being aware of the possibility of the effects of indirect exposure to client violence, particularly when more than one intern is in an agency and/or when group supervision is offered.

Field educators need to be made aware that students may have some discomfort and concern regarding the racial mix of the supervision dyad that could impact all of the functions of the supervisor. This could be discussed openly in field educator orientation to increase awareness. Cultural competency of both the field educator/supervisor and the student/employee could also be the subject of continuing education training for the many social work practitioners who are in the role of supervisor and/or field educator. In situations where a non-White supervisor may be supervising a non-White student, field directors can lend added support to the supervision process.

#### *Macro Level Planning and Interventions*

*Social work program policies.* It is essential that social work programs have written policies regarding the risks and benefits of field learning (Gelman, 1988; Faria & Kendra, 2007). Zakutansky and Sirles (1993) state that field agencies need to clarify with students if the student will have personal injury insurance. They further noted that

students who are entering high risk situations need to be apprised of who will accept financial responsibilities should any damages be incurred. Gelman additionally stated that students' informed consent should be sought regarding possible harmful situations in the field. Gelman stated that "learning can only be enhanced if students become informed participants" (p. 77).

School policies should contain a clear definition of client violence (Faria & Kendra, 2007). This is a necessary part of informing students of foreseeable dangerous situations (Zakutansky & Sirles, 1993).

A formal reporting system should be designated in order to insure that all encounters with client violence are reported (Ellison, 1996; Faria & Kendra, 2007; Ringstad, 2005). Horejsic and Garthwait (1994) recommended specifically that policies include a stipulation that all threats against a worker should be reported to the supervisor. In the field placement, this should include reporting to both the field educator and the field faculty. Furthermore, protocols should be developed as to when threats should be reported to law enforcement.

Policies should also require schools of social work to maintain records of client assaults to social work students (Mama, 2001; Ringstad, 1995). This would help social work educators to better know the prevalence of the problem.

*CSWE policies.* CSWE's educational policy requires that social work education contain "a coherent, integrated professional foundation in social work practice..." (p.37). It has been suggested that personal safety content ought to be mandated for inclusion in the required content areas by CSWE (Tully et al., 1993). To date, such content is not

mandated. This study illustrates that left to using their own discretion on implementing effective safety training for students, many social work programs either do not train their students at all, provide small amounts of training, or the training is so insignificantly discussed that students may have no recall of the conversation. Social work program administrators and field directors need to continue to encourage CSWE to mandate some training in the area of safety and client violence. Until such a time that such content is mandated, it remains responsibility of individual social work programs to include and appropriately emphasize information about personal safety in their curriculum.

*Federal policy on social work safety.* In the United Kingdom, there is a National Action Plan on Violence against Social Care Staff, which was recognized to be a step toward a central policy on violence (Brockmann, 2002). In the United States, at least two states have implemented policies to insure the protection of social workers. The Michigan Social Welfare Act of 2001 was passed in response to the brutal murder of a county child protection worker (Sarkisian & Portwood, 2003). It included laws that mandated home visit training, use of buddy systems where high risk has been predetermined, and criminal penalties for clients who exhibit violence towards social workers. More recently, West Virginia passed a state law that includes protective services workers and health care workers in a class of workers protected though increased penalties for those committing felony or misdemeanor assault against the workers when they carrying out work duties (Pace, 2008). Unfortunately, this new legislation was also in direct response to yet another social worker who was viciously murdered while making a home visit.



The United States does not have a national policy concerning violence to social workers and other human service workers. In 2005, United States Congressman Dennis Moore announced a resolution to raise awareness about potential job-related violence against social workers and case workers. The resolution encouraged state and local agencies to improve the safety of social service workers. The resolution honored the memory of Teri Zenner, a social worker who was stabbed to death by her 17 year old client while making a home visit on August 17, 2004 (Sedensky, 2004). Teri Zenner was a 26 year old graduate student at the School of Social Welfare at the University of Kansas at the time of her death (University of Kansas, 2004). Representative Moore followed this resolution with a proposed bill that would award grants to states to provide safety measures such as GPS tracking devices, facilities safety improvements, and safety training for social workers and other helping professionals who work with potentially violent clients (Teri Zenner Social Work Safety Act, 2007). This bill was not passed by the 110<sup>th</sup> Congress.

Social work schools are in a unique position to provide information about social work safety to Congressional representatives. Policy classes could provide a good forum to encourage advocacy for a federal and state policy in this area. Surely we need not wait for another brutal murder of a social worker to urge state and federal policies for social work protection.

*Coordination of safety training throughout the social work program.* Though this study found that increased training was related to increased client violence, this is not license to discontinue or decrease the amount of training provided to social work

students. Social work students in the current study recalled having a very small amount of safety training in their social work program. They had more training in their social work practice classes than in field seminar, but even in social work classes, many students had little to no training on safety for social workers. It appears that various parts of the social work program may not be aware of what the other parts are doing to train students regarding safety and violence, as evidenced by the low percentages of students receiving training in every venue. This gives the impression that perhaps each training venue has trusted the other to provide training, thus excusing them from the responsibility of safety training. The end result is that students are not being adequately trained anywhere in the social work program. It has been found that pre-service and in-service training may be efficient ways to provide knowledge of a new skill, but most new skills are best learned with the help of a consultant/coach (Fixen et al., 2005). This lends support to the idea of doing training in social work classes, which can be followed by discussions in field seminar, when students may have actually directly or indirectly encountered client violence. Additionally, the consultant/coach in the case of social work practicum is the field educator. When the student is on the job in the internship, the field educator can reinforce previous training in the academic sector of the social work program and at the field agency with ongoing discussions and support about social worker safety. Efforts must be made to coordinate safety training that is infused across the curriculum, in stand-alone trainings or conferences within or outside of the program, in field seminar, and at the field agency practicum sites.

*Risk management concerns.* Social work programs and field agencies have a responsibility to students to protect their well being to the extent that this is possible. Both must also be aware of potential financial liabilities that may exist when students' safety needs have not been adequately anticipated. Nuehring and Houston (1992) note that risk management seeks to protect the provider's financial assets, along with human and intangible resources. They further stated that "risk management means prevention, early detection, and immediate intervention in injurious situations in the organization, in order to eliminate or minimize the risk of human harm or loss of resources" (p. 58). The first level of administrative response in risk management plans requires that administrators need to create measures that focus on both staff safety and meeting client needs. Recommended strategies include safety training. Though safety training is not a panacea through which all students will miraculously avoid violent encounters, social work programs and field agencies that do not adequately train their students fail to do so at their own peril.

A precedent has been set for legal litigation towards programs and field agencies that may not adequately attempt to protect students. A 1995 Florida case was brought by a 23 year old female doctoral student placed at a field agency that she knew to be in a dangerous neighborhood (Nova Southeastern vs. Bethany Jill Gross, S.C. Case No. 94,079). Upon beginning at the agency she was told that the agency director had recently been robbed at gunpoint in the agency parking lot. She was given a manual which included safety precautions and it was suggested that she use a buddy system when leaving the building in the evening. Six months after her arrival she was robbed and raped

in the parking lot of the agency. She filed suit against the agency and the university. The field agency settled out of court for \$900,000. The university continued to fight the suit through several appeals that lasted for at least 4 years. At one point the court found the university liable for her injuries because they had a duty beyond the duty to warn. They were judged to have a duty to take reasonable cautions to protect the student in her internship. Regardless of the legal outcome, any lawsuit is costly in terms of the time, energy and financial costs to an organization.

Partially in response to the university case above, Yeomans (2004), an attorney, suggests that service learning program directors and faculty take all possible steps to prevent injuries from occurring. She stated that if injuries do occur liability can be avoided by showing that reasonable actions were taken. “Some practices to consider are:

- Careful selection of volunteer sites and activities, allowing students to choose from a list of options
- Research the potential risks and dangers involved with volunteer sites and activities. (Create a questionnaire for community partners to complete, having them disclose possible risks and safety procedures, insurance coverage, etc.
- Warn students in writing of known or potential dangers involved (as part of liability waiver)
- Keep records to show you’ve done your due diligence.
- Define volunteer roles and make sure students know the extent of their volunteer assignments.
- Develop safety practices/procedures and train volunteers (or be sure volunteer site does this.)
- Include descriptions of course required volunteer activities in course description and syllabus.

- For certain tasks, you may need to obtain volunteer references and/or background checks.
- Inspect community partners' premises for safety concerns.
- Communicate with community partners about potential hazards and safety procedures.
- Keep records to show how student volunteers are supervised at the site.
- Allow students a choice in volunteer assignments.
- Execute liability waivers and informed consent contracts.” (p.7)

As large as financial responsibility could be for a university or a field agency, social work education programs' primary responsibility must continue to be for protection of human life, both clients' and social work students'.

#### *Study Limitations*

Though the 45% response rate was better than most other national social work education studies and better than the 30% projected response rate, it still may be difficult to generalize the findings to the larger population of social worker students. Social work students who chose not to participate may not have possessed the same characteristics of the participants. There may have been unidentified intervening variables/factors that influenced the participants' response or nonresponse.

The reliability of self-report information may have been an issue, as it sometimes is in survey research. Recall of events may have been inaccurate and may have biased the research. However, because students were asked to recall incidents during their practicum and most were still in their practicum, the time between the recalled incidents and the questionnaire was minimized.

Data reliability may have been threatened by social desirability bias. It is possible that the students might have attempted to answer questions in a way that they thought was desirable for a student who is training to be a professional social worker. Studies indicate that social workers may be reluctant to report client violence for fear of what their fellow workers and supervisors may think of them. Additionally, they may be reluctant to acknowledge if they are thinking about leaving the profession.

This study had numerous significant findings, but the effect sizes on most of the analyses were small and in a few cases, moderate sized. This indicates that though knowledge of most of the independent variables can be generalized to the population, it is of little help in predicting client violence. Some of the findings are likely attributed to the large sample size.

The cross sectional design of this study prohibits making any causal statements about the data in this study. Interpretations of the data are limited to descriptive information.

### *Suggestions for Future Research*

Since most social work student client violence studies have not included MSW students, more research is needed to document MSW students' experiences with violence. Additionally, more large scale random studies are encouraged as these studies have more potential for generalizing to the larger population of social work students. Studies should attempt to replicate the questions about personal demographics in this student study as this study demonstrates some different findings than social work practitioner client violence studies.

It may be beneficial for social work client violence studies that draw a random sample from the NASW membership roster to include social work students in the sample. Most practitioner studies have deliberately excluded student social workers. Including students might give a more comprehensive view of social workers in every stage of career development.

It would be of interest to complete a client violence study with social workers who are just beginning their career post graduation. This type of study would have increased strength and reliability if a longitudinal study could be completed, following students through their academic and field preparation and into the early years of their career. This study indicates that social work students have very high affective commitment to the profession of social work. More information is needed to know if this level of commitment can be sustained in the absence of the protected environment that the social work program may provide.

Social work client violence studies need to make deliberate effort to oversample social workers and/or social work students from ethnic minorities. Since the current study indicated that Native American students have higher rates of client violence, it may be beneficial to deliberately gather information from Native American students. A qualitative study might allow for more specific focus on Native Americans' experiences with client violence.

Similarly, no American client violence studies have been directed toward social workers in developmental disability settings and few studies have included a practice category for alcohol/substance abuse. Since this study indicated that workers in these

settings experience high rates of violence, it may be beneficial to make a deliberate effort to sample workers from these practice settings. Again, qualitative inquiry with workers in these practice settings may help to better understand the essence of their experience with client violence.

Certainly, more study is needed in general about transracial supervision, especially as it relates to social work. The literature is woefully scant on this subject. Since social work students are expected to spend one hour a week in supervision and students are expected to effectively use supervision, further questions need to be asked about the strengths and issues associated with transracial supervision.

In future studies questions need to be asked about place and time of client violence in a way that will permit inferential analysis. It is important for field directors and field educators to know if particular places or times lend to the possibility of students experiencing client violence.

Much more information is needed about safety training in social work education programs to more accurately address how training might be able to help reduce incidents of client violence. Since there is a dearth of social work literature on safety training effectiveness, there is a need to explore other occupational literature to discover what factors increase training effectiveness. The following questions would be beneficial to explore:

- How is training offered in the social work curriculum? Is it offered in a specific safety unit, is it infused across the social work curriculum, or both?
- What pedagogical techniques are being used to teach about safety and client violence?



- What efforts are being made in social work programs to coordinate the training received across the curriculum and in field seminar?

There is additionally a need to continue to seek information concerning the safety and violence training provided by field agencies. Only one study has addressed this directly with the field agencies, yet in other social work program studies, many of the field directors have no knowledge of whether field agencies have safety and violence training.

Questions might include the following:

- What safety content areas are covered in agency training?
- How do students receive training in the field agency? (Do students have the training via a classroom setting, on video, or through policy/procedural manuals?)
- Is there any opportunity to interact with other seasoned practitioners during the safety training?
- Do field agencies provide or require aggression control training?

More study is needed on the development and sustaining of occupational commitment to the profession of social work. Ideally, longitudinal studies need to be done on commitment at the beginning of the educational process and commitment near the end of the educational process. Study on occupational commitment may also contribute to knowledge about professional socialization of social workers.

Though one study has been done on fear mediating the relationship between client violence and organizational commitment, further studies are needed to confirm what psychological reactions to client violence may influence organizational commitment, occupational commitment, and career turnover intentions.

As Song (2005) recommended, social support could be investigated as a possible moderator between client violence and emotional or psychological responses to the

violence. Specifically, as this relates to social work education, more information is needed on what types of support are helpful to students to reduce fear and anxiety that may be experienced in reaction to client violence.

### *Conclusion*

As Adamson (2006) concluded, heightened awareness of risk and response may not control the occurrence of client violence to social work students, but the awareness may bring increased competence appraisal, knowledge of systems that affect the student, and a strengthened level of resilience. We must remain committed to the expansion of knowledge and safety skills of social work students. Perhaps in doing so, we will help to create more competent practitioners who will have the ability to sustain their commitment to the profession of social work.

Certainly much remains to be done in terms of research, policy and practice concerning the issue of client violence towards social workers and social work students. We must not grow calloused concerning workers experiencing client violence. If some of these incidents occurred to the clients who are served in social work, there would be outrage, demand for appropriate rehabilitation and/or penalties for the perpetrators, and never failing dedication to the amelioration of the problems that caused the violence. May we do no less for our fellow social workers, particularly those who about to become the newest members of the profession.

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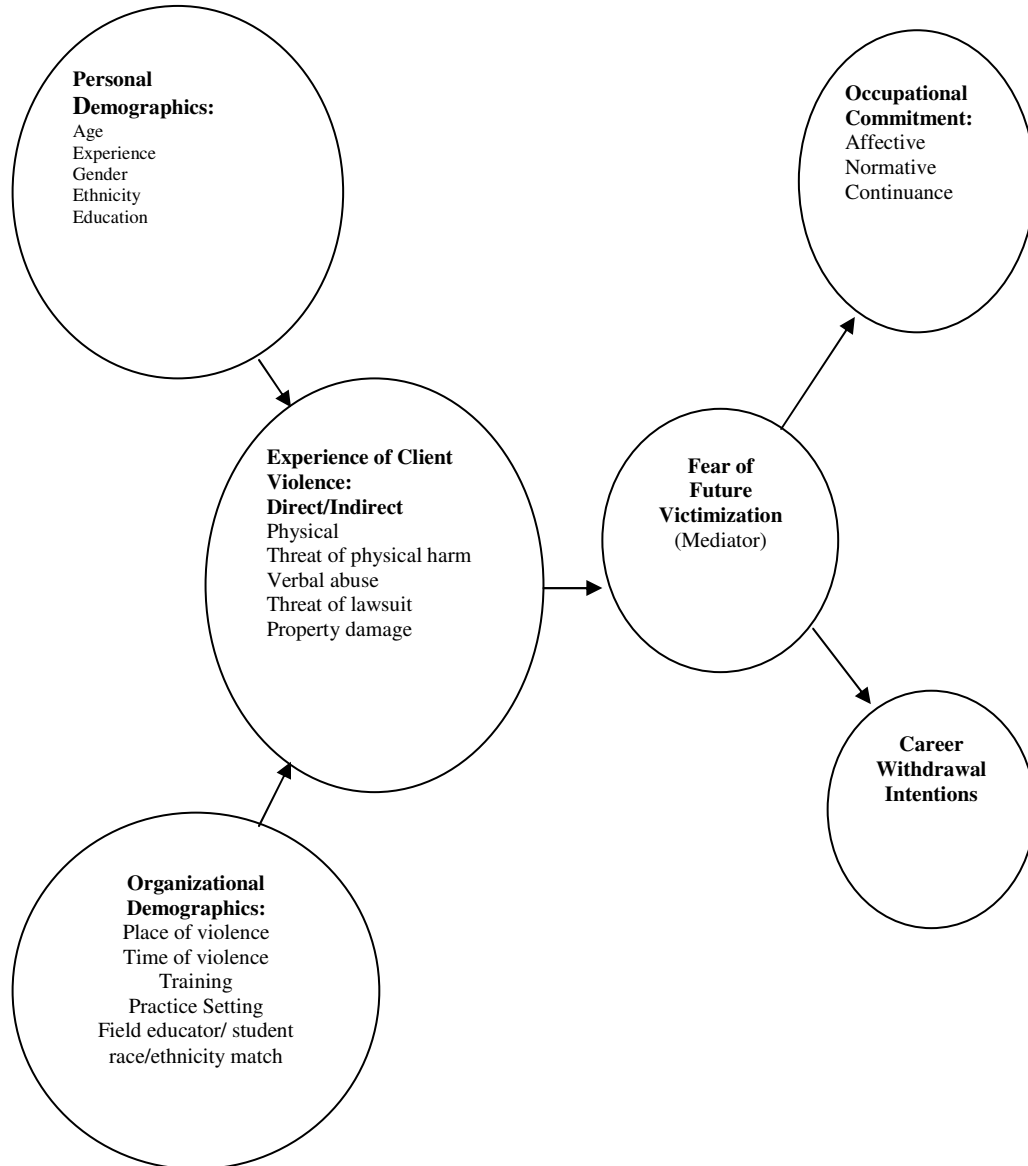
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## Appendices

Appendix A: Tables and Figures

Figure 1  
Research Model





*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 1

Summary of Hypotheses, Variable, Instruments, and Statistical Methods

No. Hypothesis/Questions	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Statistical Test
1-1. Male social work students will experience more client violence than female social work students	Client violence	Gender	t-test for independent samples
1-2. Younger social work students will experience more client violence than older social work students	Client violence	Age Age categories	Pearson's <i>r</i> One way ANOVA
1-3. Less experienced social work students will experience more client violence than more experienced social work students	Client violence	Years of Experience Experience categories	Pearson's <i>r</i> One way ANOVA
1-4. There will be no difference in exposure to client violence by students of various ethnicities/racial backgrounds.	Client violence	Ethnicity/racial background	One way ANOVA
1-5. BSW social work students will experience more client violence than MSW students	Client violence	Education level	<i>t</i> -test for independent samples
1-6. There will be a significant difference in numbers of client violence incidents according to the place of social work practice (office, home visit, other).	Client violence	Location of violence	One way ANOVA
1-7. There will be a significant difference in the numbers of client violence incidents according to the time of day.	Client violence	Time of client violence	One way ANOVA
1-8. There will be a significant difference in the numbers of client violence incidents according to the practice setting.	Client violence	Social Work Practice Settings	One way ANOVA

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 1 (Continued)  
Summary of Hypotheses, Variable, Instruments, and Statistical Methods

No. Hypothesis/Question	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Statistical Test
1-9. There will be a significant difference in the numbers of client violence incidents according to the race/ethnicity match of the students and their field educators.	Client violence	Ethnic match of field educator and student	One way ANOVA
1-10. Social work students who have more safety training offered by their social work program will experience less of every type of client violence than social work students who have had less safety training in their social work program.	Client violence	Total training received	Pearson's <i>r</i>
Best predictors of client violence among social work students	Client violence	Gender Age Experience Practice setting Location of Violence Time of violence Ethnicity/racial background BSW/MSW Total training content areas Site of training	Multiple regression
2-1. Experience of client violence has a positive and direct effect on fear of future violence	Fear of Future Violence	Client violence	For each set of variables: Pearson's <i>r</i> ; then Simple linear regression; Then hierarchical multiple regression
2-2. Fear of future violence has a negative and direct effect on occupational commitment.	Occupational commitment	Fear of future violence	
2-3. Fear of future client violence has a negative and direct effect on career withdrawal intention.	Career withdrawal intention	Fear of future violence	

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 2

Personal Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristics	BSW		MSW		Combined MSW/ BSW	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Gender	(N = 586)					
Female	91.9	227	86.4	293	88.5	525
Male	8.1	20	13.6	46	11.4	68
Missing	-	-	-	-	.3	2
Total	100	247	100	339	100.0	595
Age	(N = 558)					
24-under	44.5	102	13.0	42	24.4	145
25-30	17.0	39	38.2	123	27.4	163
31-40	18.3	42	21.4	69	18.8	112
41-50	12.7	29	17.4	56	14.5	86
51-up	7.4	17	9.9	32	8.7	52
Missing	-	-	-	-	6.3	37
Total	100.0	229	100.0	322	100.0	595
Experience	(N = 566)					
None	77.7	181	33.6	112	49.4	294
1-2 years	9.9	23	20.1	67	15.1	90
3-5 years	7.7	18	18.6	62	13.8	82
6-10 years	2.1	5	18.3	61	11.1	66
11-20 years	2.1	5	7.8	26	5.4	32
21-up years	.4	1	1.5	5	1.0	6
Missing	-	-	-	-	4.2	25
Total	100.0	233	100	333	100.0	595

Note: Total sample is reported in percentages that reflect the percentage of missing cases. BSW/MSW columns reflect valid percentages.

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 2 (Continued)

Personal Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristics	BSW		MSW		Combined MSW/ BSW	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Ethnicity	(N = 581)					
Latino/Hispanic	4.1	10	4.5	15	4.3	25
Native American	7.9	7	1.8	6	2.2	13
White	71.4	175	73.8	248	71.4	425
Asian/Pacific Island	0	0	1.5	5	.8	5
Black	18.4	45	14.6	49	16.6	99
Mixed Race	3.3	8	.3	1	3.6	21
Missing	-	-	-	-	1.2	7
Total	100.0	245	100.0	336	100.0	595
Degree Sought	(N = 588)					
MSW/BSW	42.2	248	57.1	340	98.8	588
Missing	-	-	-	-	1.2	7
Total	42.2	248	57.8	340	100.0	595

Note: Total sample is reported in percentages that reflect the percentage of missing cases. BSW/MSW columns reflect valid percentages.

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 3

Organizational/ Professional Demographics

Characteristics	BSW		MSW		Combined MSW/ BSW	
	%	n	%	n	%	n
Number of home visits	(N = 585)					
0 visits	42.3	105	49.6	167	46.4	274
1-5 visits	14.9	37	13.6	46	14.2	84
6-10visits	11.3	28	8.0	27	9.3	55
11 or more visits	31.5	78	28.8	97	30.0	177
Missing	-	-	-	-	.8	5
Total	100.0	248	100.0	337	100.0	595
% of evening hours worked	(N = 587)					
0 evening hours	36.8	91	31.2	106	33.3	198
1-25% evening hours	42.1	104	43.5	148	42.7	254
26-50 evening hours	11.7	29	10.9	37	11.1	66
51-75% evening hours	6.9	17	7.4	25	7.2	43
76-100% evening hours	2.4	6	7.1	24	5.0	30
Missing	-	-	-	-	.7	4
Total	100.0	247	100.0	340	100.0	595
Ethnic mix of supervision dyad	(N = 501)					
Matched ethnicity	63.8	136	70.5	203	57.5	342
Field educator White/Student non-White	18.3	39	12.5	36	12.6	75
Field educator non-White/Student White	15.0	32	14.6	42	12.9	77
Field educator/student mixed non-White	2.8	6	2.4	7	2.2	13
Missing	-	-	-	-	14.8	88
Total	100.0	213	100.0	288	100.0	595

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 3(Continued)

Organizational/ Professional Demographics

Characteristics	BSW		MSW		Combined MSW/ BSW	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Practice Setting	(N = 580)					
Medical/health care	8.2	20	14.3	48	11.9	71
Alcohol/drug/substance abuse	5.7	14	8.0	27	7.1	42
Developmental disabilities	3.3	8	2.1	7	2.5	15
Corrections/criminal justice	8.2	20	5.4	18	6.4	38
Children & youth/Child protection	23.0	56	14.0	47	17.5	104
Community organization/planning	5.7	14	7.1	24	6.6	39
Family services	11.5	28	6.8	23	8.7	52
Group services	.4	1	.9	3	.7	4
School	7.8	19	8.3	28	7.9	47
Service to the aged	8.2	20	6.2	21	6.9	41
Occupational/vocational	1.6	4	.6	2	1.0	6
Psychiatric/mental health	10.7	26	22.3	75	17.0	101
Public assistance/welfare	0	0	.6	2	.3	2
Other	7.8	19	5.4	18	4.4	25
Total	100.0	244	100.0	336	100.0	595

Note: Total sample is reported in percentages that reflect the percentage of missing cases. BSW/MSW columns reflect valid percentages.

## Appendix A (Continued)

Table 4

Total Training in the Social Work Program per Content Area

Training Content	Received training in s.w. class, field seminar <i>and</i> field agency	Received training in field seminar <i>and</i> field agency	Received training in social work practice class <i>and</i> field agency
Assessing history of violence in clients	6.6% (n = 34)	6.5% (n = 37)	15.0% (n = 86)
Characteristics/life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts	4.5% (n = 26)	5.1% (n = 29)	11.9% (n = 68)
Forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior	5.9% (n = 34)	6.3% (n = 36)	18.2% (n = 104)
Characteristics of high risk situations (i.e. non-public, isolated places)	10.7% (n = 61)	13.1% (n = 75)	19.9% (n = 114)
Identifying and managing feelings that can arise when working with victims and perpetrators of violence	10.0% (n = 63)	11.7% (n = 67)	20.5% (n = 117)
Maintaining a confident, secure demeanor	17.5% (n = 100)	18.7% (n = 107)	24.7% (n = 141)
Recognizing verbal acts of violence	8.7% (n = 50)	9.8% (n = 56)	16.6% (n = 95)
Physical signs that an attack is imminent	5.2% (n = 30)	6.1% (n = 35)	10.1% (n = 58)
Understanding of student's rights (For example, the right to refuse to make a home visit)	10.7% (n = 61)	13.8% (n = 79)	16.3% (n = 93)
Verbal de-escalation techniques ( How to behave with an angry client)	11.5% (n = 66)	12.4% (n = 71)	20.3% (n = 116)
Knowledge of office safety (arranging work space to maximize safety)	9.8% (n = 56)	11.7% (n = 67)	16.1% (n = 92)
Where to sit when interacting with a client	11.2% (n = 64)	13.5% (n = 77)	21.5% (n = 123)
Home visit safety	10.1% (n = 58)	13.6% (n = 78)	15.9% (n = 91)
Keeping supervisor informed of one's itinerary	16.4% (n = 94)	21.5% (n = 128)	23.8% (n = 136)
Physical techniques for self protection	3.5% (n = 20)	4.0% (n = 23)	6.1% (n = 35)
Debriefing and support after an incident (Reporting the incident)	11.9% (n = 68)	15.9% (n = 91)	19.6% (n = 112)
Recording incidents of violence	9.6% (n = 55)	11.5% (n = 66)	17.3 % (n = 99)

Note: Missing =23 in every cell

# Appendix A (Continued)

Table 5

Percentages of Students Who Had Safety Training Content per Training Venue

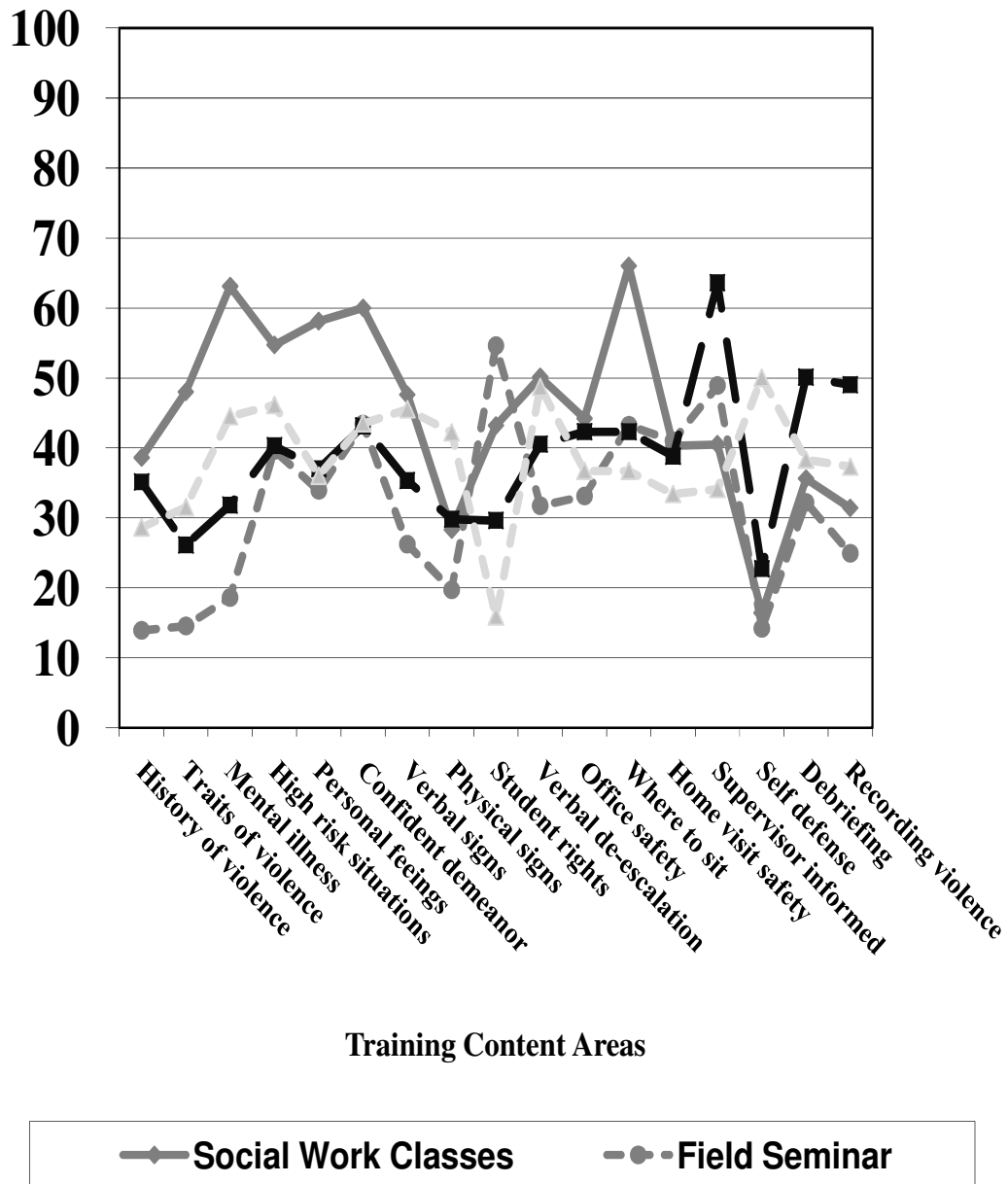
Training Content	Social Work Practice Classes % (N=572)	Social Work Field Seminar % (N=572)	Field Agency % (N=572)	Other % (N= 572)
Assessing history of violence in clients	33.9 (n=202)	8.6 (n=51)	27.1 (n=161)	14.8 (n=88)
Characteristics/life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts	42.2 (n= 251)	8.9 (n=53)	20.2 (n=120)	16.3 (n=97)
Forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior	55.5 (n= 330)	11.4 (n=68)	24.5 (n=146)	23.0 (n=137)
Characteristics of high risk situations (i.e. non-public, isolated places)	48.1 (n=286)	24.4 (n=145)	31.1 (n=185)	23.9 (n=142)
Identifying and managing feelings that can arise when working with victims and perpetrators of violence	51.1 (n=301)	20.8 (n=124)	28.6 (n=170)	18.7 (n=111)
Maintaining a confident, secure demeanor	52.8 (n=214)	26.7 (n=159)	33.3 (n=198)	22.5 (n=134)
Recognizing verbal acts of violence	41.8 (n=249)	16.1 (n=96)	27.2 (n=162)	23.5 (n= 140)
Physical signs that an attack is imminent	24.9 (n=148)	12.1 (n=72)	23.0 (n=137)	21.8 (n=130)
Understanding of student's rights (For example, the right to refuse to make a home visit)	38.0 (n=226)	33.6 (n=200)	22.9 (n=136)	8.2 (n=49)
Verbal de-escalation techniques( How to behave with an angry client)	44.0 (n=262)	19.5 (n=116)	31.3 (n=186)	25.2 (n=150)
Knowledge of office safety (arranging work space to maximize safety)	38.8 (n=231)	20.3 (n=121)	32.6 (n=194)	19.0 (n=113)
Where to sit when interacting with a client	58.0 (n=345)	26.6 (n=158)	32.6 (n=194)	19.0 (n=113)
Home visit safety	35.5 (n=211)	25.2 (n=150)	29.9 (n=178)	17.3 (n=103)
Keeping supervisor informed of one's itinerary	35.6 (n=212)	30.1 (n=179)	49.1 (n=292)	17.6 (n=105)
Physical techniques for self protection	14.5 (n=86)	8.7 (n=52)	17.5 (n=104)	25.9 (n=154)
Debriefing and support after an incident (Reporting the incident)	31.3 (n=186)	19.8 (n=118)	38.7 (n=230)	19.8 (n=118)
Recording incidents of violence	27.6 (n=164)	15.3 (n=91)	37.8 (n=225)	19.3 (n=115)
Knowledge of social work program's safety policies	40.5 (n=241)	30.9 (n=184)	25.0 (n=149)	10.4 (n=62)
Knowledge of field agency's safety policies	16.5 (n=98)	15.6 (n=93)	67.3 (n=385)	6.5 (n=6.2)

Note: Missing = 23 in every cell



Figure 2

**Percent of Social Work Students Receiving  
Client Violence Training Content Areas by Venue**



## Appendix A (Continued)

Table 6

Percentages of Students Who Did Not Have Safety Training Content per Training Venue				
Training Content	Social Work Practice Classes	Social Work Field Seminar	Field Agency	Other
	% (N=572)	% (N=572)	% (N=572)	% (N=572)
Assessing history of violence in clients	62.2 (n=370)	87.6 (n=521)	69.1 (n=411)	81.3 (n=484)
Characteristics/life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts	53.9 (n=321)	87.2 (n=519)	76.0 (n=452)	79.8 (n=475)
Forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior	40.7 (n=242)	84.7 (n=504)	71.2 (n=426)	73.1 (n=435)
Characteristics of high risk situations (i.e. non-public, isolated places)	48.1 (n=286)	71.8 (n=427)	65.0 (n=387)	72.3 (n=430)
Identifying and managing feelings that can arise when working with victims and perpetrators of violence	46.9 (n=268)	75.3 (n=448)	67.6 (n=402)	77.5 (n=461)
Maintaining a confident, secure demeanor	43.4 (n=258)	69.4 (n=413)	62.9 (n=374)	73.6 (n=438)
Recognizing verbal acts of violence	54.3 (n=323)	80.0 (n=476)	68.9 (n=410)	72.6 (n=432)
Physical signs that an attack is imminent	71.3 (n=424)	84.0 (n=500)	73.1 (n=435)	74.3 (n=442)
Understanding of student's rights (For example, the right to refuse to make a home visit)	58.2 (n=346)	62.5 (n=372)	73.3 (n=436)	87.9 (n=523)
Verbal de-escalation techniques ( How to behave with an angry client)	52.1 (n=310)	76.6 (n=456)	64.9 (n=386)	70.9 (n=422)
Knowledge of office safety (arranging work space to maximize safety)	57.3 (n=341)	75.8 (n=451)	63.5 (n=378)	77.1 (n=459)
Where to sit when interacting with a client	38.2 (n=227)	69.6 (n=414)	63.5 (n=378)	77.1 (n=459)
Home visit safety	60.7 (n=361)	70.9 (n=422)	66.2 (n=394)	78.8 (n=469)
Keeping supervisor informed of one's itinerary	60.5 (n=360)	66.1 (n=393)	47.1 (n=280)	78.5 (n=467)
Physical techniques for self protection	81.7 (n=486)	87.4 (n=520)	78.7 (n=468)	70.3 (n=418)
Debriefing and support after an incident (Reporting the incident)	64.9 (n=386)	76.3 (n=454)	57.5 (n=342)	76.3 (n=454)
Recording incidents of violence	68.6 (n=408)	80.3 (n=481)	58.3 (n=347)	76.8 (n=457)
Knowledge of social work program's safety policies	55.6 (n=331)	65.2 (n=388)	71.1 (n=423)	85.7 (n=510)
Knowledge of field agency's safety policies	79.3 (n=472)	80.3 (n=478)	31.4 (n=187)	89.9 (n=535)

Note: Missing = 23 in every cell

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 7

Prevalence Rate of Direct Client Violence during Practicum ( $N = 589$ )

	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
Experienced direct violence	248	41.7
No experience of violence	347	57.8
Missing data	3	.5

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 8

Rate of Direct Violence by Type of Violence ( $N = 589$ )

Type of Direct Violence	<i>n</i>	%
Verbal abuse	223	37.5
Threat of physical harm	84	14.1
Threat of lawsuit	56	9.4
Damage to personal or professional property	43	7.2
Physical assault	21	3.5
Missing	6	1.0

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 9

Total Incidents of Direct Client Violence during Practicum ( $N = 592$ )

Total Incidents	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	Skew	Kurtosis
1591	2.69	21.17	0 - 506	66.04	543.47
1133 (After transforming the extreme cases in all direct violence variables)	1.86	4.66	0 - 62	6.78	22.87

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 10

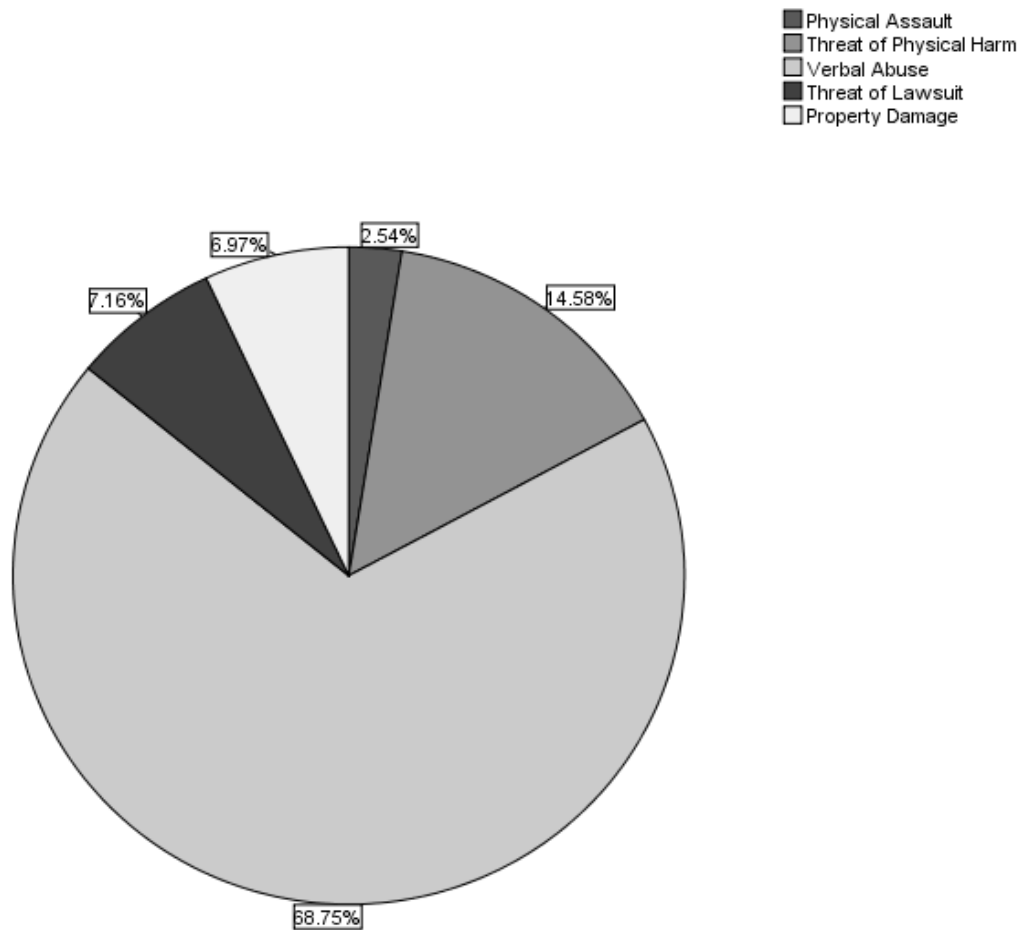
Quantities of Incidents of Direct Client Violence ( $N = 592$ )

Type of Client Violence	$\Sigma$ of incidents	% of total sum	$M$	$SD$	Range
Verbal abuse	1208	75.92	2.04	20.75	0-500
Threat of physical harm	167	10.50	.28	.90	0-10
Damage to personal or professional property	87	5.47	.15	.72	0-10
Threat of lawsuit	83	5.22	.14	.55	0-7
Physical assault	46	2.89	.08	.86	0-20
Total	1591	100.01			
After reducing cases > 4 SD					
Verbal abuse	759	68.75	1.28	3.81	0-51
Threat of physical harm	161	14.58	.27	.82	0-5
Threat of lawsuit	79	7.15	.13	.49	0-4
Damage to personal or professional property	77	6.97	.13	.56	0-4
Physical assault	28	2.53	.05	.28	0-3
Total	1104	99.98			

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Figure 3

Types of Direct Client Violence Incidents against Social Work Students



*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 11

Prevalence of Indirect Exposure to Client Violence during Practicum ( $N = 587$ )

Exposed to Indirect Violence?	<i>n</i>	%
Exposed indirectly Violence	361	60.2
No indirect exposure to violence	226	38.5
Missing	8	1.3



*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 12

Prevalence of Indirect Exposure to Client Violence by Type of Client Violence ( $N = 587$ )

Type of Client Violence	<i>n</i>	%
Verbal abuse	322	54.1
Threat of physical harm	219	36.8
Physical assault	139	23.4
Threat of lawsuit	139	23.4
Damage to personal or professional property	122	20.5

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 13

Total Incidents of Indirect Exposure to Client Violence

Total Incidents of Indirect Exposure ( $\Sigma$ )	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	Skew	Kurtosis
4110	7.05	19.97	0-151	9.42	128.49
3603 ( After reducing extreme cases)	6.18	12.64	0-97	4.02	19.38

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 14

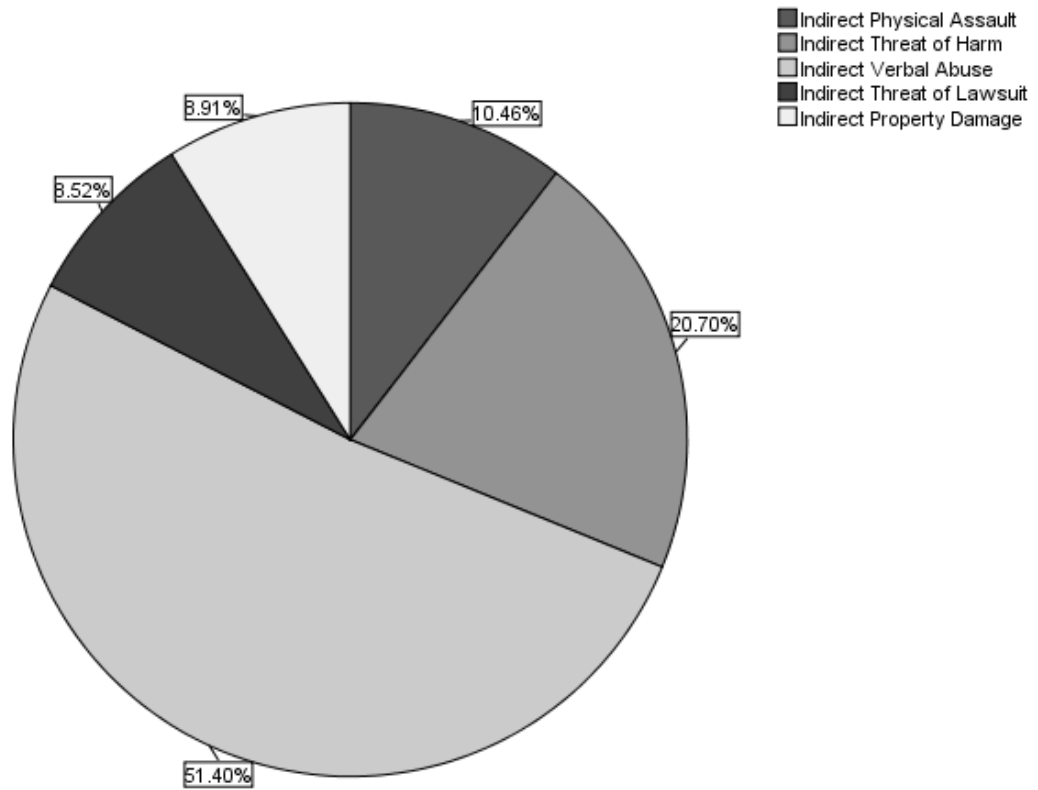
Incidents of Indirect Exposure to Client Violence by Type of Violence

No cases reduced ( <i>N</i> = 587)					
Type of Violence	$\Sigma$	% of total sum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range
Verbal abuse	2060	50.63	3.56	11.15	0-200
Threat of physical harm	857	20.85	1.46	5.31	0-100
Physical assault	425	10.34	.72	2.21	0-24
Damage to personal or professional property	399	9.70	.68	2.75	0-40
Threat of lawsuit	369	8.98	.63	2.07	0-20
Total	4110	100.5			
After reducing cases over 4 SD					
Verbal abuse	1852	51.40	3.17	6.82	0-46
Threat of physical harm	751	20.70	1.27	3.17	0-21
Physical assault	388	10.46	.66	1.74	0-11
Damage to personal or professional property	324	8.91	.55	1.61	0-11
Threat of lawsuit	309	8.52	.52	1.34	0-8
Total	3603	99.9			

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Figure 4

Types of Indirect Exposure to Client Violence by Social Work Students



*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics of Fear of Future Violence

Variables	Mean	SD	Range	Skew	Kurtosis
Fear of future physical assault	2.19	1.20	1-5	.625	-.751
Fear of future threat of harm	2.52	1.33	1-5	.273	-1.24
Fear of future verbal abuse	3.13	1.37	1-5	-.316	-1.174
Fear of Future threat of lawsuit	2.45	1.28	1-5	.299	-1.106
Fear of future property damage	2.28	1.17	1-5	.496	-.755
General fear of future client violence	2.77	1.38	1-5	.052	-1.304

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 16

Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis of Occupational Commitment (Revised per Initial Factor Analysis)

Occupational Commitment Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Communality	Reliability
Continuance Commitment					.81
CC1	.60			.55	
CC 2	.68			.55	
CC 3	.81			.70	
CC 4	.85			.63	
CC 6	.78			.57	
Affective Commitment					.91
AC 2		-.85		.70	
AC 3		-.87		.74	
AC 4		-.87		.72	
AC 5		-.86		.74	
AC 6		-.85		.72	
Normative Commitment					.82
NC 2			-.87	.69	
NC 3			-.81	.65	
NC4			-.76	.56	
NC 5			-.72	.51	
Eigenvalue	4.47	3.19	1.69		
Variance	31.96	22.76	12.06		
Cumulative Variance	31.96	54.71	66.77		

Note: AC 2=I am satisfied with my choice to enter the profession of social work; AC3=I am proud to be in the social work profession; AC4= I like being a social worker; AC5=I identify with the social work profession; AC6=I am enthusiastic about social work; NC 2=I feel obligated to remain in the social work profession; NC3=I feel a responsibility to the social work profession to continue; NC4=I would feel guilty if I left the social work profession; NC 5=Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave social work now; CC1=I have put too much into the social work profession to consider changing now; CC2=Changing professions would be difficult for me to do now; CC3=Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my profession now; CC4=It would be costly for me to change my profession now; CC6=Changing professions now would require personal sacrifice

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics of Occupational Commitment (After factor analysis indicated adjustments)

Occupational Commitment Variables	Mean	SD	Range	Skew	Kurtosis
Affective Commitment	23.35	2.93	5-25	-2.54	8.17
Normative Commitment	11.68	4.18	4-20	-.026	-.649
Continuance Commitment	16.30	5.10	5-25	-.324	-.567

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics of Career Withdrawal Intentions

Career Withdrawal Intention Variables	Mean	SD	Range	Skew	Kurtosis
Thinking about leaving sw* profession	1.47	.94	1-5	2.06	3.33
Intend to look for new profession	1.46	.88	1-5	2.00	3.41
Intend to stay in sw* profession for some time (R)	1.47	.87	1-5	2.19	4.64
Total Career Withdrawal Intentions	4.39	2.49	3-15	1.98	3.22

Note: sw = social work



*Appendix A (Continued)*

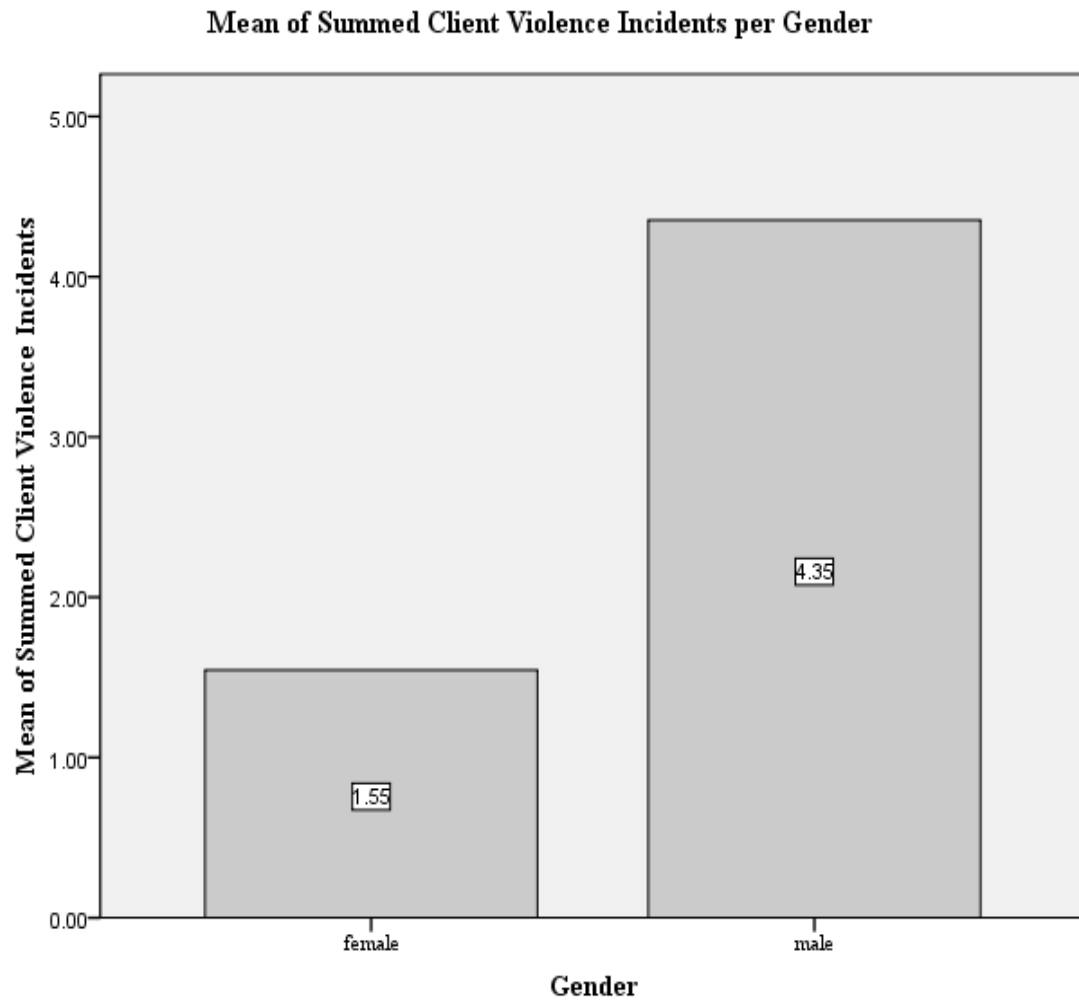
Table 19

Results of Chi Square Tests for Practicum Exposure Rate to Client Violence by Gender ( $N = 590$ )

	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
Gender	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Female	3.1	16	11.9	62	35.5	184	8.7	45	6.4	33	39.3	205
Male	7.4	5	32.4	22	55.9	38	16.2	11	14.7	10	61.6	42
	$X^2 = 3.18$		$X^2 = 20.41$		$X^2 = 10.67$		$X^2 = 3.93$		$X^2 = 6.17$		$X^2 = 12.50$	
	$p = .075$		$p = .000***$		$p = .001***$		$p = .048^*$		<b><math>p = .013^{**}</math></b>		$p = .000***$	

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

Figure 5



*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 20

Results of *t*-tests for Incidents of Client Violence by Gender

Types of Client Violence	Gender	Mean	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i>
Physical assault	Female	.04	-1.36	.179
	Male	.12		
Threat of physical harm	Female	.21	-3.24	.002***
	Male	.69		
Verbal abuse	Female	1.05	-2.20	.031*
	Male	3.09		
Threat of lawsuit	Female	.13	-1.01	.314
	Male	.19		
Property damage	Female	.12	-1.21	.230
	Male	.22		
Total client violence	Female	1.59	-2.45	.017*
	Male	4.32		

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

*Appendix A (Continued)*

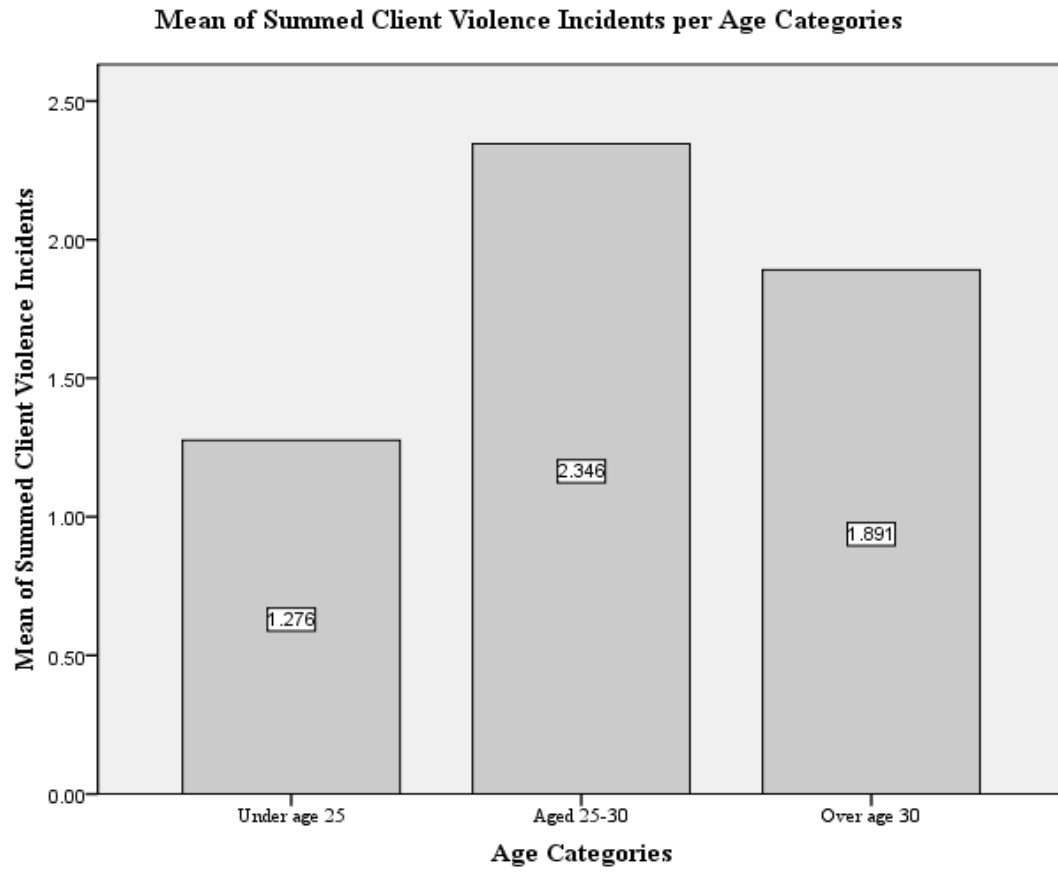
Table 21

Results of Chi Square Tests for Practicum Exposure Rate to Client Violence per Age Category ( $N = 592$ )

Age Categories	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Under 25	4.8	7	15.2	22	36.6	53	6.2	9	4.8	7	37.9	55
Age 25-30	2.5	4	16.7	27	42.0	68	14.8	24	7.4	12	45.7	74
Over 30	3.5	10	12.4	35	36.2	102	8.2	23	8.5	24	41.8	119
	$X^2 = 1.24$		$X^2 = 1.65$		$X^2 = 1.614$		$X^2 = 7.74$		$X^2 = 1.92$		$X^2 = 1.89$	
	$p = .538$		$p = .437$		$p = .446$		$p = .021^*$		$p = .382$		$p = .388$	

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

Figure 6



*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 22

Results of ANOVAs with Means and Standard Deviations of Client Violence among Age Categories  
(*N* = 592)

Age Categories	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Under age 25 ( <i>n</i> = 145 )	.69	.35	.23	.65	.84	1.84	.08	.31	.06	.29	1.27	2.60
Age 25-30 ( <i>n</i> = 162)	.03	.26	.39	1.05	1.57	4.53	.22	.64	.13	.52	2.35	5.55
Over age 30 ( <i>n</i> = 285)	.05	.25	.23	.75	1.34	4.11	.11	.45	.16	.67	1.89	4.90
	<i>F</i> = .710		<i>F</i> = 2.26		<i>F</i> = 1.48		<i>F</i> = 4.01		<i>F</i> = 1.61		<i>F</i> = 2.03	
	<i>p</i> = .491		<i>p</i> = .106		<i>p</i> = .229		<i>p</i> = .019*		<i>p</i> = .201		<i>p</i> = .132	

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\* $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 23

Results of Chi Square Tests for Practicum Exposure Rate to Client Violence per Experience Level (*N* = 557)

Experience Categories	Physical Assault		Threatened Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threatened Lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
0 years	2.7	8	10.3	30	36.1	105	7.9	23	6.2	18	40.4	118
1-2 years	4.5	4	19.1	17	24.8	31	10.1	9	9.0	8	40.4	36
3-5 years	4.9	4	18.5	15	37.0	30	7.4	6	11.1	9	41.5	34
6-10years	3.0	2	13.6	9	40.9	27	12.1	8	4.5	3	43.9	29
	$X^2 = 1.31$		$X^2 = 6.69$		$X^2 = .69$		$X^2 = 1.59$		$X^2 = 3.42$		$X^2 = .30$	
	$p = .728$		$p = .083$		$p = .876$		$p = .661$		$p = .331$		$p = .961$	

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 24

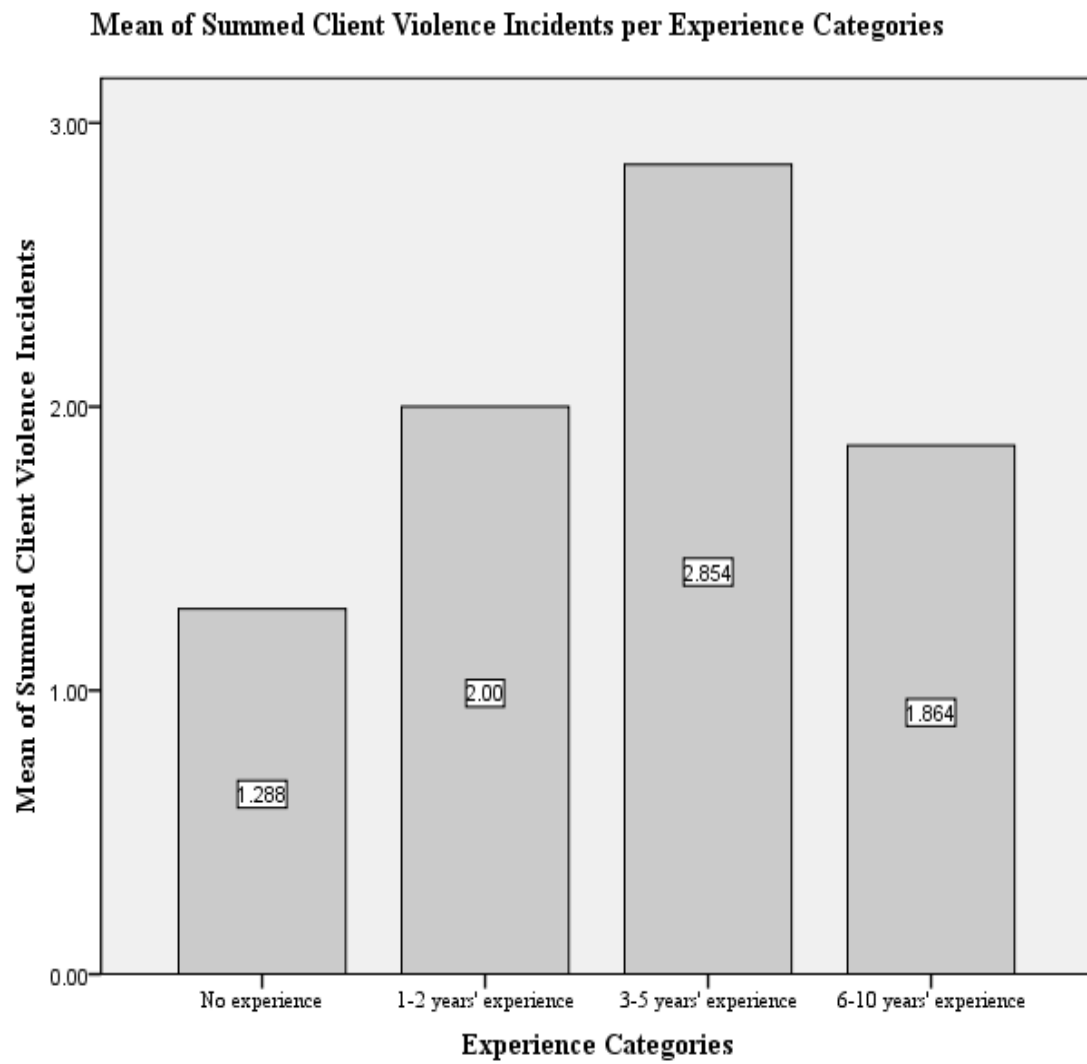
Results of Pearson's Correlations for Incidents of Client Violence by Years of Experience

	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Years of experience	.01	.796	.06	.177	.09	.040*	.08	.068	.00	.915	.09	.033*

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)



Figure 7



# Appendix A (Continued)

Table 25

Results of ANOVAs with Means and Standard Deviations of Client Violence among Experience Categories ( $N = 529$ )

Experience Categories	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
No experience ( $n = 292$ )	.03	.22	.19	.71	.88	1.87	.09	.30	.10	.47	1.29	2.66
1-2 years' experience ( $n = 89$ )	.04	.21	.33	.94	1.27	3.19	.17	.63	.18	.70	2.00	3.97
3-5 years' experience ( $n = 82$ )	.10	.46	.37	.94	2.07	6.21	.15	.61	.17	.58	2.85	7.24
6-10 years' Experience ( $n = 66$ )	.03	.17	.37	1.06	1.21	2.26	.20	.59	.09	.52	1.86	3.58
	$F = 1.38$		$F = 1.65$		$F = 3.01$		$F = 1.53$		$F = .75$		$F = 3.45$	
	$p = .247$		$p = .177$		$p = .030^*$		$p = .205$		$p = .520$		$p = .016^*$	

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\* $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

*Appendix A (Continued)*

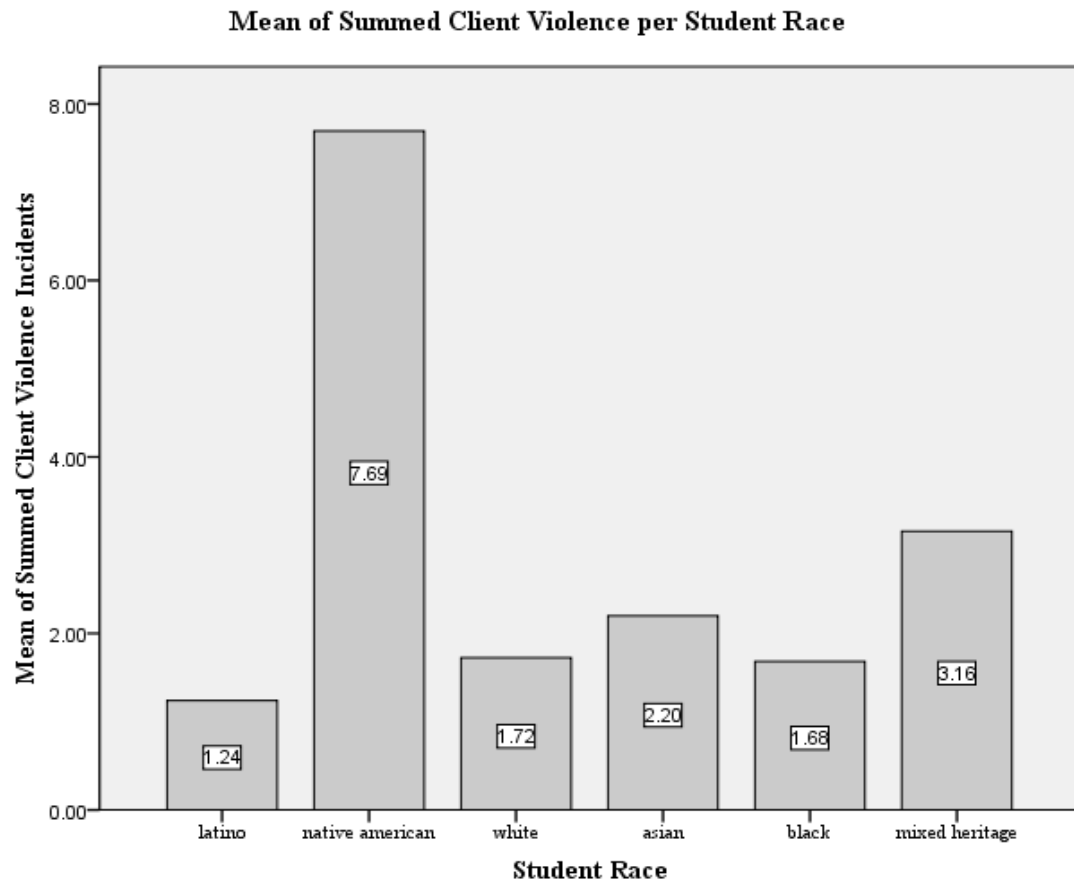
Table 26

Results of Chi Square Tests for Practicum Exposure Rate to Client Violence by Race/Ethnicity ( $N = 585$ )

Race/ Ethnicity	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Latino/ Hispanic	0	0	12.5	3	41.7	10	12.5	3	4.2	1	36.0	9
Native American	7.7	1	30.8	4	61.5	8	7.7	1	15.9	2	53.8	7
White	3.5	15	13.9	59	36.6	155	9.0	38	8.0	34	40.9	174
Asian	0	0	20.0	1	40.0	2	20.0	1	20.0	1	60.0	3
Black	3.1	3	12.2	12	35.7	35	7.1	7	2.0	2	40.8	40
Mixed Heritage	10.5	2	26.3	5	52.6	10	31.6	6	15.8	3	63.0	12
	$X^2 = 4.41$		$X^2 = 5.64$		$X^2 = 5.48$		$X^2 = 12.37$		$X^2 = 9.06$		$X^2 = 3.86$	
	$p = .492$		$p = .343$		$p = .360$		$p = .031^*$		$p = .107$		$p = .355$	

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

Figure 8



# Appendix A (Continued)

Table 27

Results of ANOVAs with Means and Standard Deviations of Client Violence among Race/Ethnic Groups  
(*N* = 585)

Practice Setting	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Latino/ Hispanic ( <i>n</i> = 25)	.00	.00	.20	.65	.80	1.32	.20	.58	.04	.20	1.24	2.06
Native American ( <i>n</i> = 13)	.15	.55	.46	.77	6.61	14.80	.08	.28	.38	1.12	7.92	18.01
White ( <i>n</i> = 425)	.04	.28	.27	.83	1.15	3.30	.12	.46	.13	.54	1.80	4.42
Asian ( <i>n</i> = 5)	.00	.00	.60	1.34	1.20	2.16	.20	.48	.20	.45	3.00	3.74
Black ( <i>n</i> = 98)	.04	.24	.25	.86	1.25	2.80	.09	.35	.04	.31	1.70	3.43
Mixed Heritage ( <i>n</i> = 19)	.16	.50	.37	.68	1.57	2.46	.58	1.12	.47	1.26	2.52	3.30
	<i>F</i> = 1.14		<i>F</i> = .38		<i>F</i> = 5.43		<i>F</i> = 3.54		<i>F</i> = 2.59		<i>F</i> = 4.26	
	<i>p</i> = .339		<i>p</i> = .858		<i>p</i> = .000***		<i>p</i> = .004***		<i>p</i> = .025*		<i>p</i> = .001***	

Note: \* *p* ≤ .05, \*\* *p* ≤ .01, \*\*\* *p* ≤ .004 (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

*Appendix A (Continued)*

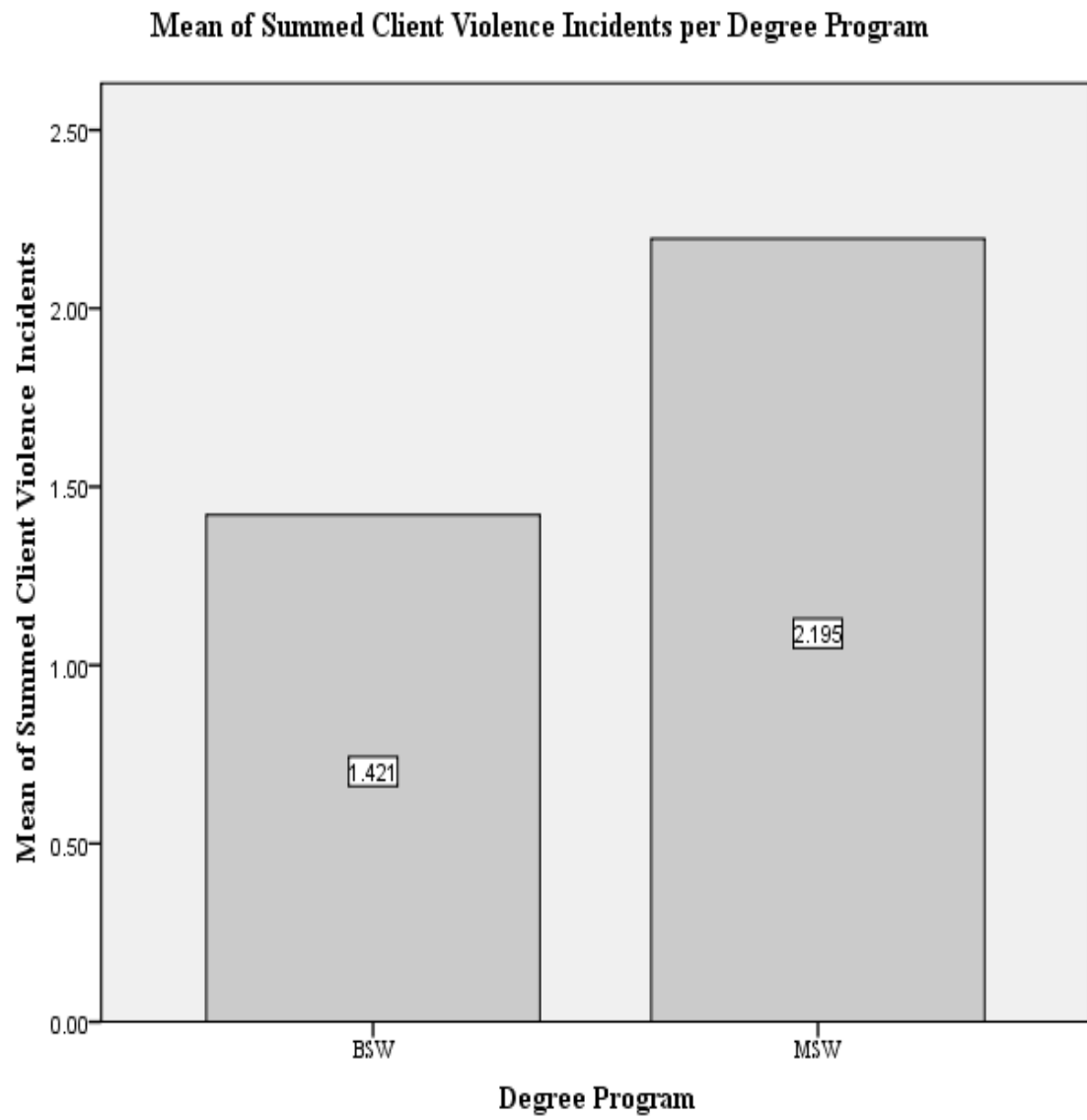
Table 28

Results of Chi Square Tests for Practicum Exposure Rate to Client Violence by Degree Program ( $N = 585$ )

Degree Program	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
MSW	3.0	10	16.4	55	39.4	132	11.6	39	6.6	22	24.6	144
BSW	4.5	11	11.3	28	35.6	88	6.5	16	8.5	21	17.4	102
	$X^2 = .88$		$X^2 = 3.00$		$X^2 = .86$		$X^2 = 4.43$		$X^2 = .78$		$X^2 = .10$	
	$p = .348$		$p = .083$		$p = .353$		$p = .035^*$		$p = .378$		$p = .752$	

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

Figure 9



*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 29

Results of *t*-tests for Incidents of Client Violence by Degree Program

Types of Client Violence	Gender	Mean	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i>
Physical assault	MSW	.03	1.42	.156
	BSW	.07		
Threat of physical harm	MSW	.35	-2.77	.004***
	BSW	.17		
Verbal abuse	MSW	1.52	-1.94	.053*
	BSW	.96		
Threat of lawsuit	MSW	.16	-1.77	.077
	BSW	.09		
Property damage	MSW	.13	.22	.826
	BSW	.14		
Total client violence	MSW	2.24	-1.96	.031*
	BSW	1.50		

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)



*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 30

Practicum Exposure Rate to Client Violence per Place of Violence ( $N = 274$ )

Place of Violence	Physical Assault		Threatened Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threatened Lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Home visit	11.8	2	24.7	20	26.9	57	15.7	8	8.1	3	23.4	148
Office	41.2	7	54.3	44	51.4	109	58.8	30	70.3	26	54.4	64
Other	47.1	8	21.0	17	21.7	46	25.5	13	21.6	8	22.6	62

Note: SPSS could not calculate  $\chi^2$  due to the construction of the variables (See p.148)

# Appendix A (Continued)

Table 31

Results of ANOVAs with Means and Standard Deviations of Client Violence of Students Making Home Visits per Number of Home Visits Made During Practicum ( $N = 316$ )

Number of Home Visits Made	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1-5 home visits ( $n = 84$ )	.02	.15	.15	.53	.85	1.73	.06	.24	.13	.65	1.21	2.27
6-10 home visits ( $n = 55$ )	.07	.33	.16	.60	.73	1.46	.07	.36	.07	.42	1.10	2.31
11 or more home visits ( $n = 177$ )	.08	.38	.40	1.09	1.35	2.94	.25	.70	.16	.66	2.24	4.17
	$F = .86$		$F = 2.71$		$F = 2.00$		$F = 4.57$		$F = .46$		$F = 3.71$	
	$p = .422$		$p = .068$		$p = .137$		$p = .011^{**}$		$p = .632$		$p = .027^{*}$	

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\* $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 32

Practicum Exposure Rate to Client Violence per Time of Day

Time of Violence	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Daytime	76.5	13	71.8	56	71.6	151	82.0	42	71.4	25	69.69	184
Evening	23.5	5	24.4	19	26.5	56	13.7	7	25.7	9	26.13	69
Early morning	0	0	3.8	3	1.9	4	3.9	2	2.9	1	4.16	11

Note: SPSS could not calculate  $\chi^2$  due to the construction of the variables (See p. 151)

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 33

Results of Chi Square Tests for Practicum Exposure Rates per Percent of Evening Hours Worked ( $N = 588$ )

Percent of Evening Hours	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
0%	3.1	6	12.2	24	33.7	66	7.7	15	5.6	11	38.1	75
1-25%	4.0	10	13.5	34	39.7	100	11.1	28	8.7	22	44.3	29
26-50%	1.5	1	20.0	13	40.0	26	7.7	5	6.2	4	44.6	29
51-75%	9.3	4	18.6	8	41.9	18	9.3	4	9.3	4	46.5	20
76-100%	0	0	13.8	4	37.9	11	13.8	4	6.9	2	36.7	11
	$X^2 = 6.19$		$X^2 = 3.20$		$X^2 = 2.24$		$X^2 = 2.39$		$X^2 = 1.96$		$X^2 = 2.68$	
	$p = .192$		$p = .521$		$p = .687$		$p = .674$		$p = .737$		$p = .653$	

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 34

Results of ANOVAs with Means and Standard Deviations of Client Violence per Percentage of Evening Hours Worked ( $N = 588$ )

% of Evening Hours Worked	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
No evening hours ( $n = 197$ )	.04	.23	.24	.80	1.38	5.40	.12	.48	.12	.59	1.89	6.24
1-25% evening hours ( $n = 253$ )	.05	.28	.23	.74	1.08	2.38	.16	.54	.14	.59	1.68	3.29
26-50% evening hours ( $n = 65$ )	.02	.12	.32	.83	1.07	2.03	.09	.34	.09	.38	1.60	2.77
51-75% evening hours ( $n = 43$ )	.16	.57	.53	1.32	2.14	4.45	.09	.36	.20	.80	3.02	5.86
76-100% evening hours ( $n = 30$ )	.00	.00	.23	.68	1.47	3.08	.20	.55	.20	.80	2.10	3.84
	$F = 2.34$		$F = 1.35$		$F = 81$		$F = .54$		$F = .30$		$F = .83$	
	$p = .054^*$		$p = .250$		$p = .520$		$p = .704$		$p = .881$		$p = .501$	

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

*Appendix A (Continued)*

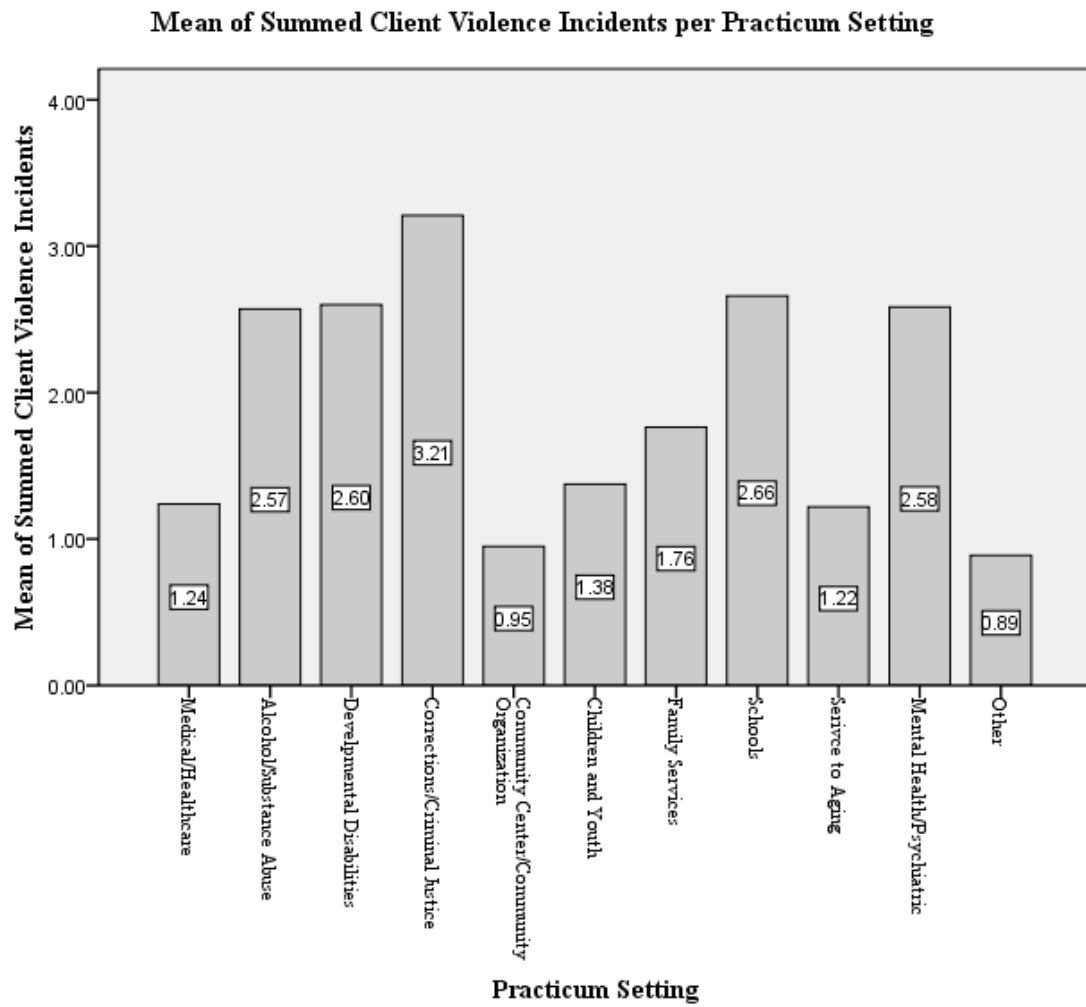
Table 35

Results of Chi Square Tests for Practicum Exposure Rate to Client Violence by Practice Setting ( $N = 585$ )

Practice Setting	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Medical/Health	2.8	2	9.9	7	39.4	28	11.3	8	1.4	1	43.7	31
Alcohol/Substance abuse	7.1	3	14.3	6	50.0	21	16.7	7	14.3	6	52.5	22
Developmental disabilities	13.3	2	20.0	3	46.7	7	0	0	6.7	1	53.3	8
Corrections/Criminal Justice	2.6	1	13.2	5	36.8	14	10.5	4	7.9	3	42.1	16
Community Organization	0	0	5.3	2	18.4	7	5.3	2	5.3	2	20.5	8
Child & Family/Child Protection	2.9	3	9.6	10	30.8	32	14.4	15	5.8	6	38.5	40
Family services	2.0	1	15.7	8	39.2	20	9.8	5	5.9	3	37.3	19
Schools	4.3	2	19.6	9	37.0	17	6.5	3	8.7	4	40.4	19
Services to the Aging	7.3	3	14.6	6	34.1	14	7.3	3	2.4	1	34.1	14
Mental health/Psychiatric	3.0	3	23.0	23	47.0	47	9.0	9	14.0	14	54.5	15
	$X^2 = 9.67$		$X^2 = 13.60$		$X^2 = 15.45$		$X^2 = 12.47$		$X^2 = 15.62$		$X^2 = 19.17$	
	$p = .470$		$p = .192$		$p = .117$		$p = .254$		$p = .111$		$p = .038^*$	

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

Figure 10



*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 36

Results of ANOVAs with Means and Standard Deviations of Client Violence among Practice Settings  
(*N* = 585)

Practice Setting	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Medical/Health ( <i>n</i> = 71)	.04	.26	.17	.61	.85	1.37	.15	.55	.01	.12	1.27	2.04
Alcohol/Substance abuse ( <i>n</i> = 42)	.14	.52	.23	.66	1.60	4.25	.38	.96	.21	.68	2.45	5.34
Developmental disabilities ( <i>n</i> = 15)	.27	.80	.47	1.30	1.73	3.90	.00	.00	.13	.52	4.26	6.80
Corrections/Criminal Justice ( <i>n</i> = 38)	.00	.00	.24	.75	2.60	8.41	.13	.41	.24	.91	3.37	10.32
Community Organization ( <i>n</i> = 39)	.00	.00	.05	.22	.71	1.95	.05	.22	.13	.66	1.07	2.58
Child & Family/Child Protection ( <i>n</i> = 104)	.03	.17	.21	.77	.84	1.67	.19	.58	.09	.47	1.36	2.46
Family services ( <i>n</i> = 51)	.02	.14	.41	1.15	1.08	2.44	.12	.38	.14	.63	1.52	3.20
Schools ( <i>n</i> = 47)	.04	.20	.36	.99	2.10	7.64	.06	.24	.09	.28	2.85	9.44
Services to the Aging ( <i>n</i> = 41)	.07	.26	.22	.61	.78	1.45	.12	.51	.02	.16	1.21	2.43
Mental health/Psychiatric ( <i>n</i> = 101)	.05	.32	.44	1.00	1.73	3.37	.11	.37	.26	.77	2.59	4.33
	<i>F</i> = 1.77		<i>F</i> = 1.22		<i>F</i> = 1.37		<i>F</i> = 1.88		<i>F</i> = 1.28		<i>F</i> = 1.74	
	<i>p</i> = .063		<i>p</i> = .274		<i>p</i> = .192		<i>p</i> = .040*		<i>p</i> = .238		<i>p</i> = .068	

Note: \* *p* ≤ .05, \*\**p* ≤ .01, \*\*\* *p* ≤ .004 (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)



*Appendix A (Continued)*

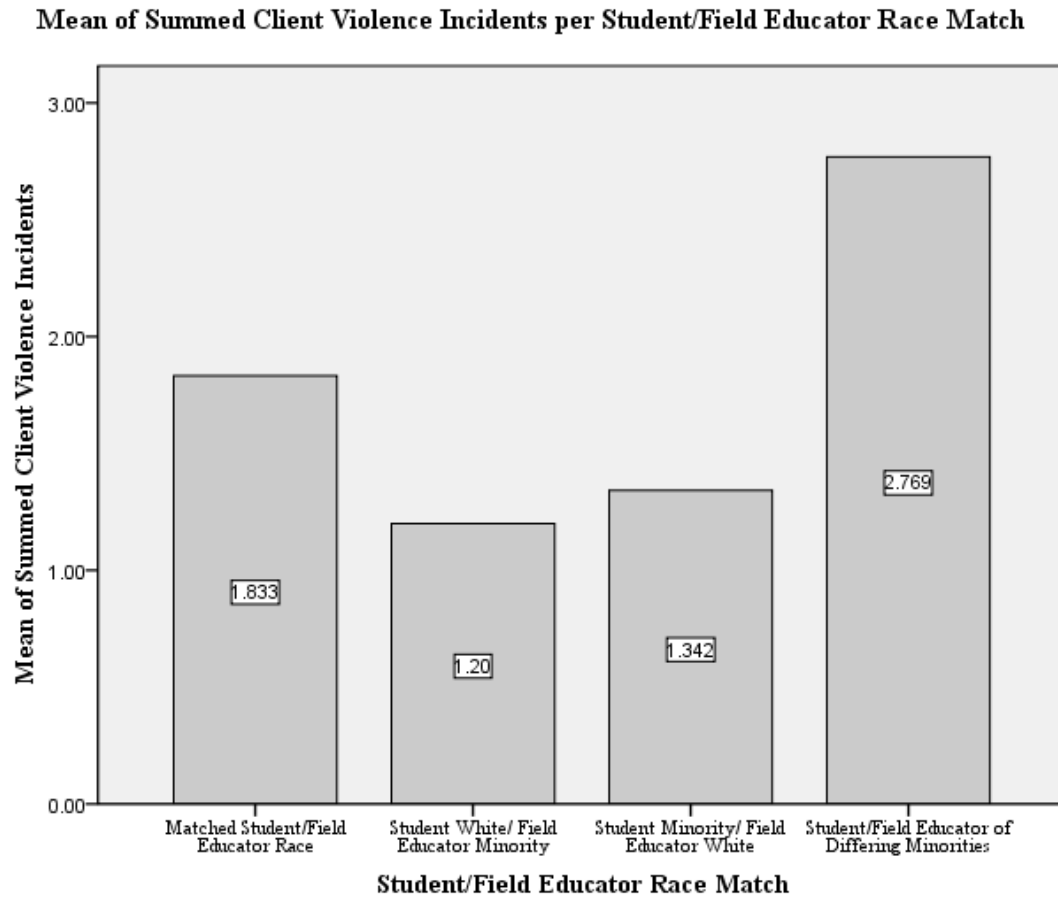
Table 37

Results of Chi Square Tests for Practicum Exposure Rates per Race Match of Student/Field Educator  
(*N*= 588)

Race Match	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Matched race	2.6	9	14.7	50	39.4	134	9.7	33	7.6	26	42.8	146
Student White/ Educator minority	5.3	4	10.7	8	28.0	21	5.3	4	8.0	6	37.3	28
Student minority/ Educator White	2.6	2	13.2	10	39.5	30	11.8	9	2.6	2	43.4	33
Student minority/ Educator minority	8.3	1	25.0	3	50.0	6	16.7	2	25.0	3	53.4	8
	$X^2 = 2.55$		$X^2 = 2.06$		$X^2 = 4.28$		$X^2 = 2.72$		$X^2 = 8.06$		$X^2 = 1.54$	
	$p = .466$		$p = .559$		$p = .233$		$p = .437$		$p = .045^*$		$p = .773$	

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

Figure 11



Appendix A (Continued)

Table 38

Results of ANOVAs with Means and Standard Deviations of Client Violence per Racial/Ethnic Match of Student and Field Educator ( $N = 505$ )

Practice Setting	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Matched student/field educator race ( $n = 341$ )	.32	.23	.28	.83	1.26	3.57	.13	.45	.13	.55	1.83	4.41
Student White/Field educator minority ( $n = 75$ )	.53	.22	.19	.69	.73	1.86	.09	.50	.13	.55	1.20	2.43
Student minority/Field educator White ( $n = 76$ )	.03	.16	.21	.62	.89	1.66	.16	.49	.05	.36	1.34	2.28
Student/field educator of differing minorities ( $n = 13$ )	.15	.55	.46	.97	1.00	1.53	.46	1.20	.69	1.49	2.76	3.96
	$F = 1.27$		$F = .65$		$F = .77$		$F = 2.10$		$F = 4.69$		$F = 1.08$	
	$p = .284$		$p = .585$		$p = .511$		$p = .098$		$p = .003***$		$p = .357$	

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

## Appendix A (Continued)

Table 39

Results of Pearson's Correlations between Incidents of Client Violence and Total Training in Training Venues ( $N = 567$ )

Training Venues	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Social work classes	.02	.717	-.01	.848	.07	.098	-.01	.947	.03	.434	.06	.151
Field Seminar	.02	.611	.04	.402	.10	.013*	.08	.058	.07	.122	.11	.009**
Field Agency	.11	.009**	.14	.001***	.09	.029*	.08	.044*	.11	.010**	.13	.002***
Other places	-.01	.888	.04	.363	.08	.046*	.06	.154	.10	.022*	.09	.027*
Total Training	.06	.179	.04	.049*	.14	.001***	.09	.039*	.12	.004***	.15	.000***

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

# Appendix A (Continued)

Table 40

Results of Pearson's Correlations between Incidents of Client Violence and Total Training per Content Area  
(*N* = 569)

Content Areas	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Assess history	.07	.087	.05	.245	.05	.245
Violence characteristics	.05	.399	.09	.032*	.12	.005**
Mental illness signs of violence	.05	.274	.05	.234	.11	.009**
High risk situations	.03	.447	.04	.360	.10	.023*
Managing feelings in self	.06	.184	.01	.842	.06	.181
Confident demeanor	.08	.062	.06	.188	-.01	.753
Verbal signs of violence	.03	.513	.04	.368	.08	.069
Physical signs of violence	.11	.009**	.11	.008**	.10	.019*
Student rights	.05	.213	.10	.017*	.06	.177
Verbal de-escalation	.09	.022*	.10	.022*	.11	.012**
Office safety	-.02	.658	.03	.493	.12	.006**
Where to sit	-.00	.957	-.03	.403	-.08	.050*
Home visit safety	.02	.608	.01	.855	.03	.484
Inform supervisor of whereabouts	-.01	.789	-.04	.370	.09	.031*
Physical techniques for self defense	.10	.016*	.08	.064	.14	.001***

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

## Appendix A (Continued)

Table 40 (Continued)

Results of Pearson's Correlations between Incidents of Client Violence and Total Training per Content Area  
(*N* = 569)

Content Areas	Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Assess history	.05	.196	.03	.445	.06	.137
Violence characteristics	.03	.530	.12	.005**	.13	.002***
Mental illness signs of violence	.01	.861	.15	.000***	.12	.004***
High risk situations	.11	.008**	.08	.067	.11	.010**
Managing feelings in self	.03	.461	.06	.129	.06	.141
Confident demeanor	.08	.056	.06	.193	.02	.665
Verbal signs of violence	.04	.322	.10	.020*	.09	.039*
Physical signs of violence	.01	.758	.11	.011**	.12	.004***
Student rights	-.00	.935	.07	.109	.08	.075
Verbal de-escalation	.07	.104	.10	.022*	.13	.002***
Office safety	.06	.911	.01	.864	.10	.017*
Where to sit	.06	.168	.06	.152	.09	.038*
Home visit safety	.07	.087	-.01	.764	.03	.433
Inform supervisor of whereabouts	.09	.031*	.03	.430	.09	.023*
Physical techniques for self defense	.04	.321	.14	.001***	.15	.000***

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

# Appendix A (Continued)

Table 41

Results of Pearson's Correlations between Direct Incidents of Client Violence and Occupational Commitment/Career Withdrawal Intentions ( $N = 586$ )

(Direct Experience)	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Affective Commitment	.04	.359	.03	.488	.01	.910	.00	.998	.02	.679	.02	.682
Normative Commitment	.11	.011**	.05	.271	.01	.733	.02	.572	.05	.192	.03	.474
Continuance Commitment	.06	.143	.04	.384	.02	.686	-.07	.091	-.01	.776	.01	.837
Career Withdrawal Intentions	-.06	.162	.00	.839	.780	.35	.00	.944	.05	.516	.01	.858

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 42

Results of Pearson's Correlations between Indirect Exposure to Client Violence and Occupational Commitment/Career Withdrawal Intentions ( $N = 589$ )

(Indirect Exposure)	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Affective Commitment	-.02	.580	.00	.926	.04	.301	-.01	.881	-.01	.886	.02	.573
Normative Commitment	.00	.954	-.05	.280	-.02	.672	-.03	.464	.01	.852	-.02	.642
Continuance Commitment	.03	.417	.01	.830	-.01	.871	.02	.686	-.01	.765	.01	.898
Career Withdrawal Intentions	-.05	.165	.01	.811	.00	.654	.01	.919	.05	.6091	.01	.677



*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 43

Results of Pearson's Correlations between Direct Experience of Specific Types of Incidents of Violence and Fears of Same Type of Violence and General Fear of Violence ( $N = 582$ )

(Direct Experience)	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Fear of Physical Assault	.08	.042*	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Fear of Threat of Harm	--	--	.22	.000***	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Fear of Verbal Abuse	--	--	--	--	.13	.000***	--	--	--	--	--	--
Fear of Threat of Lawsuit	--	--	--	--	--	--	.19	.000***	--	--	--	--
Fear of Property Damage	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.09	.040*	--	--
Fear of Any Type of Client Violence	.02	.564	.18	.000***	.13	.002***	.15	.000***	.08	.043*	.15	.000***

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 44

Results of Pearson's Correlations between Indirect Exposure to Specific Types of Incidents of Violence and Fears of Same Type of Violence and General Fear of Violence ( $N = 582$ )

(Direct Experience)	Physical Assault		Threat of Physical Harm		Verbal Abuse		Threat of lawsuit		Property Damage		Total Client Violence	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Fear of Physical Assault	.17	.000***	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Fear of Threat of Harm	--	--	.23	.000***	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Fear of Verbal Abuse	--	--	--	--	.21	.000***	--	--	--	--	--	--
Fear of Threat of Lawsuit	--	--	--	--	--	--	.29	.000***	--	--	--	--
Fear of Property Damage	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.14	.001***	--	--
Fear of Any Type of Client Violence	.17	.000***	.21	.000***	.21	.000***	.27	.000***	.15	.000***	.27	.000***

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

# Appendix A (Continued)

Table 45

Results of Pearson's Correlations between Fear of Violence and Occupational Commitment ( $N = 589$ )

	Fear of Physical Assault		Fear of Threat of Physical Harm		Fear of Verbal Abuse		Fear of Threat of lawsuit		Fear of Property Damage		Fear of Any Client Violence	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
AC	-.10	.014**	-.08	.046*	-.01	.820	-.04	.285	-.07	.089	-.07	.102
NC	.14	.001***	.13	.002***	.18	.000***	.13	.002***	.12	.003***	.17	.000***
CC	.17	.003***	.12	.004***	.17	.000***	.15	.000***	.12	.004***	.17	.000***

Note: \*  $p \leq .05$ , \*\*  $p \leq .01$ , \*\*\*  $p \leq .004$  (Significant after Bonferroni adjustment)

Note: AC = Affective Commitment; NC = Normative Commitment; CC = Continuance Commitment

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 46

Model Summary for Predictors of Occurrence of Overall Client Violence

Step	Factors	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{\text{adj}}$	$\Delta R^2$	$F_{\text{chg}}$	$p$	$df_1$	$df_2$
1	Male	.173	.030	.028	.030	15.66	.000	1	507
2	Mental health setting	.208	.043	.039	.013	6.98	.008	1	506
3	11 or more home visits	.231	.053	.048	.010	5.48	.020	1	505
4	Alcohol/substance abuse setting	.251	.063	.056	.010	5.14	.024	1	504

Coefficient for Final Model of Occurrence of Overall Client Violence

Factor	$B$	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	Bivariate $r$	Partial $r$
Male	.201	.125	2.84	.005	.151	.126
Mental health setting	.135	.108	2.43	.015	.109	.108
11 or more home visits	.115	.109	2.48	.014	.098	.110
Alcohol/substance abuse setting	.206	.106	3.37	.018	.085	.105

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 47

Model Summary for Predictors of Frequency of Overall Client Violence

Step	Factors	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{\text{adj}}$	$\Delta R^2$	$F_{\text{chg}}$	$p$	$df_1$	$df_2$
1	Male	.183	.034	.029	.034	6.68	.011	1	192

Coefficient for Final Model of Overall Occurrence of Client Violence

Factor	$B$	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	Bivariate $r$	Partial $r$
Male	.140	.183	2.58	.011	.183	.183

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 48

Model Summary for Predictors of Occurrence of Physical Assault

Step	Factors	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{\text{adj}}$	$\Delta R^2$	$F_{\text{chg}}$	$p$	$df_1$	$df_2$
1	Developmental disabilities setting	.103	.011	.009	.010	5.511	.021	1	509
2	Field agency training	.144	.021	.017	.010	5.271	.022	1	508

Coefficient for Final Model of Overall Occurrence of Physical Assault

Factor	$B$	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	Bivariate $r$	Partial $r$
Developmental disabilities setting	.117	.106	2.42	.016	.103	.107
Field agency training	.004	.101	2.40	.022	.097	.101

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 49

Model Summary for Predictors of Occurrence of Threat of Physical Harm

Step	Factors	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{\text{adj}}$	$\Delta R^2$	$F_{\text{chg}}$	$p$	$df_1$	$df_2$
1	Male	.210	.044	.042	.044	23.22	.000	1	505
2	Mental health setting	.231	.053	.050	.010	5.073	.025	1	504

Coefficient for Final Model of Occurrence of Threat of Physical Harm

Factor	$B$	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	Bivariate $r$	Partial $r$
Male	.230	.198	4.53	.000	.210	.198
Mental health setting	.089	.098	2.25	.025	.122	.100

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 50

Model Summary for Predictors of Occurrence of Verbal Abuse

Step	Factors	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{\text{adj}}$	$\Delta R^2$	$F_{\text{chg}}$	$p$	$df_1$	$df_2$
1	Male	.151	.023	.021	.023	11.76	.001	1	505
2	Mental health setting	.176	.031	.027	.008	4.31	.038	1	504
3	11 or more home visits	.199	.040	.034	.009	4.46	.035	1	503
4	Alcohol/substance abuse setting	.224	.050	.043	.011	5.60	.018	1	502

Coefficient for Final Model of Occurrence of Verbal Abuse

Factor	$B$	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	Bivariate $r$	Partial $r$
Male	.201	.125	2.84	.005	.151	.126
Mental health setting	.135	.108	2.43	.015	.109	.108
11 or more home visits	.115	.109	2.48	.014	.098	.110
Alcohol/substance abuse setting	.206	.106	2.37	.018	.085	.105



*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 51

Model Summary for Predictors of Occurrence of Threat of Lawsuit

Step	Factors	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{\text{adj}}$	$\Delta R^2$	$F_{\text{chg}}$	$p$	$df_1$	$df_2$
1	Age 25 to 30	.153	.023	.021	.02	12.11	.001	1	505
2	Mixed ethnic heritage	.210	.044	.040	.02	10.96	.001	1	504
3	11 or more home visits	.239	.057	.052	.01	6.81	.009	1	503
4	Alcohol/substance setting	.259	.067	.059	.01	5.29	.022	1	502

Coefficient for Final Model of Occurrence of Threat of Lawsuit

Factor	$B$	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	Bivariate $r$	Partial $r$
Age 25 to 30	.098	.162	3.76	.000	.153	.165
Mixed ethnic heritage	.201	.130	2.99	.003	.140	.132
11 or more home visits	.079	.120	2.95	.003	.113	.131
Alcohol/substance abuse setting	.114	.101	2.30	.022	.092	.102

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 52

Model Summary for Predictors of Occurrence of Property Damage

Step	Factors	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{\text{adj}}$	$\Delta R^2$	$F_{\text{chg}}$	$p$	$df_1$	$df_2$
1	Male	.136	.019	.017	.02	9.53	.003	1	505
2	Mixed minority supervision dyad	.182	.033	.029	.02	7.66	.006	1	504
3	Mental health setting	.215	.046	.040	.01	6.79	.009	1	503

Coefficient for Final Model of Occurrence of Property Damage

Factor	$B$	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	Bivariate $r$	Partial $r$
Male	.112	.128	2.92	.004	.136	.127
Mixed minority supervision dyad	.222	.125	2.86	.004	.114	.126
Mental health setting	.078	.114	2.61	.009	.126	.115

*Appendix A (Continued)*

Table 53  
Percentages of Field Directors Reporting Giving Training Content versus Students Reporting Receiving Training Content

Safety content areas	Faria and Kendra (% of field directors/programs reporting giving training in social work classes) <i>N</i> = 13	Criss (This study) (% of students reporting receiving training in social work classes) <i>N</i> = 595
Characteristics of high risk situations-non-public, isolated places	100% ( <i>n</i> = 13)	48.1% ( <i>n</i> = 286)
Creating safe office space	92% ( <i>n</i> = 12)	38.8% ( <i>n</i> = 231)
Maintaining a confident, secure demeanor	92% ( <i>n</i> = 12)	52.8% ( <i>n</i> = 214)
Verbal de-escalation	92% ( <i>n</i> = 12)	44.0% ( <i>n</i> = 262)
Where to sit when interacting with a client	92% ( <i>n</i> = 12)	58.0% ( <i>n</i> = 345)
Characteristics/life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts	85% ( <i>n</i> = 11)	42.2% ( <i>n</i> = 251)
Keeping supervisor informed of one's itinerary	85% ( <i>n</i> = 11)	35.6% ( <i>n</i> = 212)
Recognizing verbal acts of violence	85% ( <i>n</i> = 11)	41.8% ( <i>n</i> = 249)
Self awareness of feelings	85% ( <i>n</i> = 11)	51.1% ( <i>n</i> = 301)
Physical signs that attack is imminent	77% ( <i>n</i> = 10)	24.9% ( <i>n</i> = 148)
Forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior	69% ( <i>n</i> = 9)	55.5% ( <i>n</i> = 330)
What to do if one is a victim of violence( filing reports, dealing with physical and emotional aspects)	38% ( <i>n</i> = 5)	31.3% ( <i>n</i> = 186)
Training in non-violent defense	31% ( <i>n</i> = 4)	27.6% ( <i>n</i> = 164)

## Appendix B: IRB Letter



December 19, 2007

Pamela Criss, MSW, Doctoral Candidate  
Social Work Department  
Southeastern University  
1000 Longfellow Blvd.  
Lakeland, Florida  
33801

RE: **Expedited Approval** for Initial Review

IRB#: 106461

Title: *Prevalence of Client Violence Against Social Work Students and Its Effects on Fear of Future Violence, Occupational Commitment, and Career Withdrawal Intentions*

Study Approval Period: December 18, 2007 to December 16, 2008

Dear Ms. Criss:

On December 18, 2007, Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed and **APPROVED** the above protocol **for the period indicated above**. It was the determination of the IRB that your study qualified for expedited review based on the federal expedited category number seven (7) with a wavier of documentation of informed consent: Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

The IRB reminds you that all links to the list of participants needs to be eliminated as soon as possible (as indicated in the Initial Application).

Please note, if applicable, the **enclosed informed consent/assent documents are valid during the period indicated by the official, IRB-Approval stamp located on page one of the form**. Valid consent must be documented on a copy of the most recently IRB-approved consent form. Make copies from the enclosed original.

**Please reference the above IRB protocol number in all correspondence** regarding this protocol with the IRB or the Division of Research Integrity and Compliance. In addition, we have enclosed an Institutional Review Board (IRB) Quick Reference Guide providing guidelines and resources to assist you in meeting your responsibilities in the conduction of human participant research. Please read this guide carefully. It is your responsibility to conduct this study in accordance with IRB policies and procedures and as approved by the IRB.

OFFICE OF RESEARCH • DIVISION OF RESEARCH INTEGRITY & COMPLIANCE  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARDS, FWA No. 00001669  
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(813) 974-5638 • FAX (813) 974-5618

*Appendix B (Continued)*

We appreciate your dedication to the ethical conduct of human subject research at the University of South Florida and your continued commitment to human research protections. If you have any questions regarding this matter, please call 813-974-9343.

Sincerely,



Paul G. Stiles, J.D., Ph.D., Chairperson  
USF Institutional Review Board

Enclosures: (If applicable) IRB-Approved, Stamped Informed Consent/Assent Documents(s)  
IRB Quick Reference Guide

Cc: Norma Epley, USF IRB Professional Staff

SB-IRB-Approved-EXPEDITED-0601

## Appendix C: in Focus NASW Information

### DATA CARD



INFOCUS EXCLUSIVE	
<b>ADDRESSING</b>	
IBM/PC COMPATIBLE DISKETTE	\$65F
CD-ROM	\$75F
P/S LABELS	\$10/M
EMAIL TRANSFER	\$75F
4-UP CHESHIRE LABELS	N/C
KEYCODE	\$10/M
CASS-CERTIFY	\$100F
FTP	\$75F
MAGNETIC TAPE	\$50F
<b>SELECTION</b>	
STATE	\$10/M
ZIP CODE	\$10/M
SCF	\$10/M
CHAPTER/COUNTY	\$10/M
FUNCTION	\$10/M
PRACTICE	\$10/M
WORK SETTING	\$10/M
WORK FOCUS	\$10/M
MEMBERSHIP TYPE	\$10/M
ETHNICITY	\$10/M
GENDER	\$10/M
YEARS EXPERIENCE	\$10/M
AGE	\$10/M
ANNUAL INCOME	\$10/M
<b>SPECIFICATION</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* Source: NASW membership records</li> <li>* Average Unit Of Sale: \$190 annual dues</li> <li>* List Updated: Monthly</li> <li>* Minimum order: 5,000 names</li> <li>* Sample mail piece required for approval.</li> <li>* Mail piece and IRB approval letter from your institution required for approval for research</li> <li>* 20% commission to qualified list brokers. 15% commission to qualified ad agencies.</li> <li>* Allow 2-5 business days to process order after list owner approval.</li> <li>* Orders cancelled prior to the mail date are subject to a \$50 cancellation fee plus running and material charges.</li> <li>* Pre-payment required for first-time mailers.</li> <li>* Reuse discount: \$10/M off base price. Approval required. Reuse of lists originally received via email transfer is permitted within 6 months of original order.</li> </ul>	
<b>CONTACT</b>	
Kerry Tranfa Phone : 800-708-LIST ext. 3246 Email: ktranfa@infocusnet.com Fax: 540-878-2211	
<b>DISCLAIMER</b>	
We believe the information concerning this list to be accurate but we cannot guarantee its accuracy or the outcome of the mailing.	



National Association of Social Workers

Web Page: <http://www.naswdc.org>

Last Update: 2/02/2007

150,000 Active Paid Members

\$150/M

Founded in 1955, the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) is the largest organization dedicated to promoting, developing and protecting the practice of social work and professional social workers. NASW also seeks to enhance the effective functioning and well-being of individuals, families, and communities through its work and advocacy.

As the nation's largest group of mental health services providers, NASW members are trained professionals who have bachelor's, master's, or doctoral degrees in social work. Members address problems as varied as substance abuse, family conflicts, workplace tensions, health problems, disabilities, mental illness, inadequate housing, poverty, and violence. They practice in a wide variety of settings (selectable) including: family services agencies, community mental health centers, child welfare, private practice, schools, hospitals, businesses, nursing homes, courts, prisons, and public and private agencies.

NASW members pay \$190 in annual dues and respond to a wide array of offers. To better assist you in matching your product or service with the right social worker, NASW's member list is selectable by geography, function, practice, work setting, work focus, membership type, ethnicity, gender, age, income, and years experience in social work.

#### SUGGESTED USAGE:

Professional books/journals/magazines, mental health, psychology, education, health, counseling, therapy, continuing education, seminars, conferences, women's offers, catalogs, etc.

#### Other recommended lists:

American Association for Marriage and Family Therapy  
 American Mental Health Counselors Association  
 Association for Conflict Resolution  
 Association of Oncology Social Work  
 Employee Assistance Professionals Association

To see more recommended lists go to last page

SELECTS: page 2

PAGE 1

## Appendix C (Continued)

### DATA CARD SELECTS



### National Association of Social Workers

FUNCTION			WORK FOCUS		
ADMG	Administration/Management	12,566	DISAB	Dev/Other Disabilities	774
CLDP	Clinical/Direct Practice	50,483	EMPLR	Employment Related	297
CO	Community Org/Advocacy	603	FAM	Family Issues	4,048
OTH	Other	6,517	GRIEF	Grief/Bereavement	633
RES	Research/Policy Development	987	HLTH	Health	1,823
SUP	Supervision	9,149	INDBP	Individual/Behavioral Problems	3,940
TEACH	Teaching	7,330	OTH	Other	1,933
TRAIN	Training-Agency Based	246	VVSRV	Violence/Victim Services	477
PRACTICE			MEMBERSHIP TYPE		
AGE	Aging	4,012	BSW		2,981
CHFAM	Child/Family Welfare	19,584	BSW-S		4,153
CRIM	Criminal Justice	1,110	BSW-T		2,391
HLTH	Health	6,979	DOC-S		334
MHLTH	Mental Health	32,225	DSW		3,957
EAP	Occupational SW/EAP	901	GOLD		7,721
OTH	Other	12,396	MSW		94,356
SSW	School Social Work-All Schools	3,929	MSW-S		9,426
WORK SETTING			MSW-T		7,069
BUS	Business/Industry	197	MSWT3		2,432
COLL	College/University	4,581	RET		4,451
JUST	Court/Justice System	1,078	UNEMP		156
HLTHIN	Health-Inpatient	11,108	ETHNICITY		
HLTHOUT	Health-Outpatient	11,667	AFAM	African American	6,414
MGCARE	Managed Care	236	API	Asian/Pacific Islander	1,802
MTLHLTHIN	Mental Health-Inpatient	685	MEX	Chicano/Mexican	1,054
MTLHLTHOUT	Mental Health-Out Patient	2,752	AINA	Native American	543
PPGP	Private Practice-Group	6,168	OTH	Other	1,671
PPSOLO	Private Practice-Solo	17,660	PR	Puerto Rican	902
PAWELL	Public Assistance/Welfare	2,376	WHITE	White	83,576
RESFAC	Residential Facility	4,566	GENDER		
SCHOOL	School-PreSchool thru 12	4,435	F	Female	112,690
SSAGEN	Social Service Agency	13,185	M	Male	25,446
WORK FOCUS					
ATOD	Alcohol/Drug Abuse	1,528			

### CONTACT

Kerry Tranfa  
 Phone : 800-708-LIST ext. 3246  
 Email: ktranfa@infocusnet.com  
 Fax: 540-878-2211



## Appendix D: Client Violence Questionnaire

### Social Work Student Client Violence Questionnaire

#### Demographic & Background Information

**1. Field Placement status - Hours completed**

- ☐ 1000 or more hours
- ☐ 750 - 999 hours
- ☐ 500 - 749 hours
- ☐ 250 - 499 hours
- ☐ 100 - 249 hours
- ☐ 1 - 99 hours
- ☐ 0 hours

Stop questionnaire here if you have not yet completed any hours of field placement. Thank you for your willingness to participate.

**2. Gender**

- ☐ Female   ☐ Male

**3. Age** \_\_\_\_\_

**4.**

Student	Field Instructor	Ethnicity
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Latino/Hispanic
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Native American
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	White (non-Hispanic)
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Asian or Pacific Islander
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Black/ African American
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Mixed heritage
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Other (Please specify)

**6. Number of years of experience in a paid social work position prior to beginning current practicum**

\_\_\_\_\_

**7. Current academic enrollment**

- ☐ BSW
- ☐ MSW

**8. Number of home visits completed in your internship**

- ☐ 0
- ☐ 1 - 5
- ☐ 6 - 10
- ☐ 11 or more

**9. Percentage of practicum hours spent working during evening hours**

- ☐ 0
- ☐ 1 - 25%
- ☐ 26 - 50%
- ☐ 51 - 75%
- ☐ 76 - 100%

**5. Primary area of service in field placement (Check one)**

- ☐ Medical/health care services
  - ☐ Alcohol/drug/ substance abuse services
  - ☐ Developmental disabilities
  - ☐ Corrections/criminal justice
  - ☐ Community center/ community organization/ planning
  - ☐ Children and youth/ child protective services
  - ☐ Family services
  - ☐ Group services
  - ☐ School social work
  - ☐ Services to the aged
  - ☐ Occupational/Vocational
  - ☐ Psychiatric/Mental health services
  - ☐ Public assistance/welfare
  - ☐ Other (please specify)
- \_\_\_\_\_



## Appendix D (Continued)

### Direct Experience of Client Violence

The questions below should be answered according to client violence that has occurred **during the time you have been in your practicum setting**.

#### 10. Direct Exposure to Violence

As accurately as you can, please indicate the number of times you have experienced any of the below described violent or aggressive events from a client **while in your practicum**. If you have not experienced a type of client violence, indicate with a zero (0).

Type of Client Violence	# of times while in the field placement
a. Physically assaulted by a client	
b. Threatened with physical harm by a client	
c. Verbally abused by a client	
d. Threat of lawsuit by a client	
e. Suffered damage to personal or agency property by a client	

#### 11. Place of Violent Incident(s)

Please CHECK where the **most recent** violent incident took place **while in your practicum** for each type of client violence listed.

Type of Client Violence	Home Visit	Office	Other	Not Applicable
a. Physically assaulted by a client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. Threatened with physical harm by a client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. Verbally abused by a client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. Threat of lawsuit by a client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. Suffered damage to personal or agency property by a client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

#### 12. Time of the Violent Incident(s)

Please CHECK the time of day that the **most recent** incident of violence took place **while in your practicum** for each type of client violence listed.

Type of Client Violence	Daytime (8am-5pm)	Evening (5pm-12am)	Early Morning (12am-8am)	Not Applicable
a. Physically assaulted by a client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. Threatened with physical harm by a client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. Verbally abused by a client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. Threat of lawsuit by a client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. Suffered damage to personal or agency property by a client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

### Indirect Exposure to Client Violence

#### 13. Client Violence Towards Co-workers or Classmates

If you have heard about and/or witnessed any of the following violent or aggressive events committed **during your time in your field placement**, as accurately as you can, please provide the number of times of your experiences. If you have not heard about or witnessed any violent or aggressive events, indicate with a zero (0).

Type of Client Violence	# of times while in the field placement
a. Physical assault committed on any other worker or a classmate by a client	
b. Threat of physical harm committed on any other worker or a classmate by a client	
c. Verbal abuse committed on any other worker or a classmate by a client	
d. Threat of lawsuit committed on any other worker or a classmate by a client	
e. Damage to personal or agency property committed on any other worker or a classmate by a client	

## Appendix D (Continued)

### 14. Reporting Client Violence

If you talked with any of the individuals/groups listed below about an incident of client violence, CHECK how helpful the advice/support was.

Reported Violence to:	How helpful?				
	4 - Very helpful	3 - Helpful	2 - Somewhat helpful	1 - Not at all helpful	0 - Did not talk to
a. Agency staff	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. Social work classmates	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. Social work faculty members	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. Field instructor/ Task supervisor	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. Field liaison/ Field Director	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. Field seminar class	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

### 15. Fear of Future Victimization From Client Violence

For each statement below, please CHECK the appropriate number to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement on how you feel right now. Note that statements apply to the next year.

Fear of Future Victimization From Client Violence	1 - Strongly Disagree	2 - Moderately Disagree	3 - Neither Agree/Disagree	4 - Moderately Agree	5 - Strongly Agree
a. I fear that I will be physically assaulted by a client.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I fear that I will be threatened with physical assault by a client.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I fear that I will be verbally abused by a client.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. I fear that a client will threaten me with a lawsuit.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. I fear that I will suffer damage to my personal or agency property by a client.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. Overall, I feel that I will experience some kind of client violence in the next year.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

### 16. Occupational Commitment Scale

For each statement below, please CHECK the appropriate number to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement on how you feel or perceive each statement.

Affective Commitment	1 - Strongly Disagree	2 - Moderately Disagree	3 - Neither Agree/Disagree	4 - Moderately Agree	5 - Strongly Agree
a. Social work is important to my self image.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I am satisfied with my choice to enter the social work profession.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I am proud to be in the social work profession.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. I like being a social worker.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. I identify with the social work profession.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. I am enthusiastic about social work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

### 17.

Normative Commitment	1 - Strongly Disagree	2 - Moderately Disagree	3 - Neither Agree/Disagree	4 - Moderately Agree	5 - Strongly Agree
a. I am in social work because of a sense of loyalty to it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I feel obligated to remain in the social work profession.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I feel a responsibility to the social work profession to continue.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. I would feel guilty if I left social work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave social work now.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. I believe people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable amount of time.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*Appendix D (Continued)*

18.

Continuance Commitment	5 - Strongly Agree	4 - Moderately Agree	3 - Neither Agree/Disagree	2 - Moderately Disagree	1 - Strongly Disagree
a. I have put too much into the social work profession to consider changing now.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. Changing professions would be difficult for me to do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my profession.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. It would be costly for me to change my profession now.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. There are pressures to keep me from changing professions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. Changing professions now would require considerable personal sacrifice.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

19. **Career Withdrawal Intentions**

For each statement below, please CHECK the appropriate number to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the statements.

Turnover Intentions	5 - Strongly Agree	4 - Moderately Agree	3 - Neither Agree/Disagree	2 - Moderately Disagree	1 - Strongly Disagree
a. I am thinking about leaving the social work profession.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I intend to look for a new profession.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I intend to stay in the social work profession for some time.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



*Appendix D (Continued)*

**20. Informational Support/Training**

Please indicate if you have had training in any of the following content areas during the course of your social work education. Additionally, CHECK all places where you received the training.

Content of Safety/Violence Training	Have you had this training?		Where did you receive the training? (Check all that apply ✓)				
	YES	NO	Practice classes	Social Work	Field Seminar	Field Agency	Other
a. Assessing history of violence in clients							
b. Characteristics/life experiences of people more likely to commit violent acts							
c. Forms of mental illness associated with violent behavior							
d. Characteristics of high risk situations (i.e. non-public, isolated places)							
e. Identifying and managing feelings that can arise when working with victims and perpetrators of violence							
f. Maintaining a confident, secure demeanor							
g. Recognizing verbal acts of violence							
h. Physical signs that an attack is imminent							
i. Understanding of student's rights (for example, the right to refuse to make a home visit)							
j. Verbal de-escalation techniques (How to behave with an angry client)							
k. Knowledge of office safety (arranging work space to maximize safety)							
l. Where to sit when interacting with a client							
m. Home visit safety							
n. Keeping supervisor informed of one's itinerary							
o. Physical techniques for self protection							
p. Debriefing and support after an incident (Reporting the incident)							
q. Recording incidents of violence							
r. Knowledge of social work program's safety policies							
s. Knowledge of field agency's safety policies							

**21. To what extent do you feel prepared to effectively deal with violent clients or potentially violent clients?**

- ☐ fully prepared
- ☐ mostly prepared
- ☐ somewhat (or partially) prepared
- ☐ not at all prepared

*Appendix E: First Mailing Cover Letter*



March 18, 2008

Dear Social Work Student:

Social work students' exposure to client violence deserves our attention. As a part of a select random sample from national NASW student members, you are being asked to participate in an important study for the field of social work. This is the first nationwide study to ask social work students' opinions about client violence and how this may impact commitment to the social work profession. As a social work student, your knowledge and experience is vital for the success of this research. By completing this questionnaire, you will make a valuable contribution to the advancement of knowledge in this area.

A genuine attempt has been made to make the items in the survey instrument straightforward and clear. Almost all of the items can be answered by simply checking a circle. The survey has a total of 80 questions. You should be able to complete the instrument in about 12-15 minutes.

Though your participation is valuable, it is entirely voluntary. You may choose to skip any questions that you do not wish to answer. Return of the questionnaire will imply your consent to participate. All returned questionnaires are secured in a locked cabinet, accessible only to the primary researcher.

Data regarding individual participants will be totally confidential. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire itself. The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so that your number can be taken off the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned.

The information being requested in this survey may be of a sensitive and personal nature. Potential risks of participation include possible negative feelings related to the recall of incidents of client violence. If you have any concerns that you wish to discuss you may contact the primary researcher, Pam Criss, at (863) 667-5153.

Please consider participation in this important study. Benefits to the field of social work are an increased understanding of incidents of client violence in the internship and the short term and long term effects on students. With this knowledge, we can understand more about how to prevent and appropriately address client violence, if it should occur during the practicum.

*Appendix E (Continued)*

Upon completion of the questionnaire, return it in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope. Please return the questionnaire by April 4, 2008. If you have questions regarding this study, please call me at (863) 667- 5153 or email me at [pcriss@seuniversity.edu](mailto:pcriss@seuniversity.edu). You may also contact Dr. Lisa Rapp-Paglicci at (863) 974-1809.

***Your contribution to the success of this study is greatly appreciated.***

Sincerely,

Pam Criss, MSW, LCSW  
Doctoral Candidate  
School of Social Work  
University of South Florida  
Tampa, Florida

*Appendix F: Second Mailing Cover Letter*

University of South Florida  
College of Arts and Sciences  
School of Social Work  
Tampa, Florida

April 8, 2008

Dear Social Work Student:

I am writing to you about our study of social work students' experience with client violence. Three weeks ago the Client Violence Questionnaire was mailed to you. This is the first nationwide study to ask social work students about their experience with client violence and its possible impact on their career decisions. It is hoped that by increasing our understanding about social work students' exposure to client violence, we can help to reduce incidents of client violence and improve training that is offered on this subject.

If you have already completed and mailed the survey please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please do so today. Because the survey was only sent to a small random sample of social work students it is very important that your opinion be included in the study if the results are to be representative of social work student in the United States.

Participation in the research is strictly voluntary. You may withdraw at any time without penalty. You may skip any questions that you do not wish to answer. All responses are anonymous. Potential risks of participation include possible negative feelings related to the recall of incidents of client violence. All returned questionnaires are secured in a locked cabinet, accessible only to the primary researcher. Upon completion of the study, the questionnaires will be shredded and disposed of.

In the event that your questionnaire has been misplaced, a replacement is being enclosed. I would be happy to answer any questions or concerns you have about the study. Please contact me by email at [pcriss@seuniversity.edu](mailto:pcriss@seuniversity.edu) or by phone at (863) 667-5153. If you are interested in the results of the study I will be happy to forward the results as soon as they are available.

*Appendix F (Continued)*

***Your contribution to the success of this study is greatly appreciated.***

Sincerely,

Pam Criss, MSW, LCSW  
Doctoral Candidate  
University of South Florida  
School of Social Work  
Tampa Florida



*Appendix G: Pre-Mailing Post Card*

March 11, 2008

Dear Social Work Student:

You have been randomly selected to participate in an important national study of client violence against social work students. Be watching in the coming week for the survey instrument and more details.

Thank you in advance for your assistance with this study.

Pam Criss, MSW, LCSW  
Doctoral candidate  
University of South Florida  
Tampa, Florida

*Appendix H: Emailed Permissions to Use Scales/Questions*

Email from Dr. Christina Newhill

Dear Ms. Criss,

It is a great idea to look at the issue of client violence with social work students. Not much has been done in that realm - just a couple of studies that I am aware of. You are welcome to use my questionnaire in my book and adding a few questions to speak specifically to the issues relevant to students is good. I would suggest questions addressing the following: (1) have the students received any education in the classroom about working with violent and aggressive clients - particularly those who are involuntary - and how to do a violence risk assessment?; (2) Does the agency where they do their field placement have a safety policy in place and was the student appraised of such a policy? (3) Is the issue of safety part of the student's field learning plan? Those are just a few things I can think of immediately. Questions related to whether they have experienced incidents of violence are included in the questionnaire and the wording can be modified to be relevant to the student experience.

Let me know if I can be of further assistance. Best of luck with your dissertation!

Christina Newhill

Christina E. Newhill, Ph.D., LCSW  
Associate Professor  
School of Social Work  
2217F Cathedral of Learning  
University of Pittsburgh  
Pittsburgh, PA 15260  
Telephone: (412) 624-6330  
Fax: (412) 624-1159

*Appendix H (Continued)*

Email concerning Fear of Future Violence Scale from Dr. Kevin Kelloway

Pam

Sorry about this, I was using my memory and got the wrong email for aaron.

I am now back in the office. You certainly have permission to use the fear and/or support scales in your own work. I am attaching a file containing the support measures we used in the study Best of luck with your research kevin

-----Original Message-----

From: Pam Criss [<mailto:pcriss@seuniversity.edu>]

Sent: Wednesday, June 13, 2007 12:54 PM

To: kevin.kelloway@SMU.CA

Subject: RE: Fear of future violence scale

Thanks for your response. I have not heard from Dr. Schat. I am not in a great hurry to get the scales, so I can wait until you return. I actually have seen one of the scales, Fear of Future Violence Scale, in a dissertation by Ki-bum Song, Columbia University, 2005. However, I wanted to get permission from you to consider using the scale in my research. I would still like to see the scales on Instrumental and Informational support, when you have a chance to send them. Thanks for your help with this.

Pam Criss, MSW, LCSW  
Social Work Program Field Coordinator  
Southeastern University  
1000 Longfellow Blvd.  
Lakeland, FL 33801  
(863) 667-5153  
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### About the Author

Pamela Myatt Criss is Associate Professor and Field Coordinator for the Social Work Program at Southeastern University in Lakeland, Florida. She obtained her B.A. from Florida Southern College and her M.S.W. from University of South Florida. Ms. Criss has over 30 years experience as a social worker, predominantly in the field of child welfare and she is a licensed clinical social worker. She co-wrote accreditation documents that culminated in Council on Social Work Education accreditation of the Social Work Program at Southeastern University in February, 2006. Ms. Criss was nominated for Who's Who among America's Teachers in 2005 and 2007. Additionally she was named Social Worker of the Year for her local unit of National Association of Social Workers in 2003.